

# The Nation.

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## The Week.

THE yellow fever obtained a foothold in New Orleans, in the southern part of the city, about the middle of July, being brought there from St. Thomas, and it is now an epidemic in that city, where out of over eleven hundred cases nearly three hundred have been fatal. The rigid quarantine maintained by the neighboring towns and cities has limited its ravages, several which were attacked in 1873 having thus far escaped; but in Port Eads, Vicksburg, and Memphis, where numerous cases have appeared, there seems no likelihood of its being soon checked, while the town of Grenada is literally given over to desolation. There the fever is said to have originated in the opening of a foul sewer, immediately after which it appeared and has ever since raged with unwonted violence. Out of two hundred patients not one has shown signs of recovery, and more than eighty have already died; only seventy-five white persons remain in the town, and these are almost certainly doomed, while at last accounts the fever had attacked the blacks, and some of the nurses had been prostrated. A more wretched sight of desolation, delirium, and sudden death has not been seen for many years in this country. Relief funds begin to pour in from Wilmington, New York, Boston, and other cities. The Government is giving aid at Memphis, which has been partially depopulated. The defenceless condition of the city and the great opportunity for plunder have made military guards and an increased police force necessary, the negroes being enlisted for the first time in this service. As usual, the prices of provisions and ice have been raised, and the rents for suburban houses increased many fold, while among the grotesque incidents is the derangement of the plans of stump-speakers for the pending canvass, with its possible influence on the fortunes of candidates at the polls. There seems to be no occasion for alarm in other cities, North or South, although isolated cases are reported in Mobile, Cincinnati, and along the river borders, and one case in this city and another in Brooklyn. Quarantine regulations are rigidly enforced, and caution has in some cases overcome charity and been unnecessarily merciless in refusing refuge.

The Kearney movement seems to be subsiding. An attempt to get up a reception for him in Indiana proved an entire failure, and some of his late associates in California have been writing letters to the East denouncing him as a conceited, ignorant, and dishonest person. He had, however, been deposed by a portion of his followers in California before he started, for "Caesarism, corruption, and insanity." A more worthless ruffian is probably not to be found among the laboring population East or West, but no disrepute or insignificance into which he may now fall will deprive him of the glory of having, with no weapons but a few oaths and epithets, forced nearly the whole press of the commercial States to treat him as a serious political antagonist, to expend numerous and elaborate editorial articles on him, and to put a handle to his name. He has probably underrated the intelligence and self-respect of the constituency to which he appeals at the East, but he has not underrated them greatly. If he had been a little more coherent, and tacked his blasphemy and vituperation on to a plan or theory of some kind, he would not have failed so soon.

During the Fenian movement against Canada after the late war it was widely believed in "Fenian circles" that belligerent rights were stored in great quantities in the State Department at Washington, and that any organization calling itself a government or republic was entitled to a bundle of them for use in military operations. Some of the workingmen in Massachusetts are likely to be befogged in somewhat the same way by the Butler-Kearney advice to "pool

their issues." Kearney was asked during his speech in Brighton the other day what "the issues" were, and was very much flustered and annoyed by the question, refused to answer it, and berated the person who put it. Very few of his Irish followers know that they have "issues" or where to find them, and still less how to "pool" them, and will probably suffer a good deal of worry between now and the election from not knowing what course to adopt. It would, therefore, be a kind and thoughtful thing for the State authorities to open an office at which any poor man could have his issues pooled for a small fee, say five cents apiece.

The Tennessee Democrats have adopted a platform which indicates pretty clearly the tendency of the party all over the country. In the usual "arraignment" of the Republicans they revile them for the conversion of greenbacks into bonds; for demonetizing silver; for establishing the national banks; for fixing a period of resumption; for levying high duties on tobacco and alcoholic drinks; for administering the Government in the interest of the rich and against the poor. They then pass on to "demand" the repeal of the national pledge that the Government bonds shall be paid in coin; the repeal of the Resumption Act; the substitution of greenbacks for national-bank notes, and the raising of all future Government loans by the issue of non-interest-bearing paper money; the coinage of silver in unlimited quantities, and the payment in it of all Government obligations. It will be seen from all this that the Republican party cannot possibly compete with the Democrats in appeals to Communistic and Repudiationist feeling. In these the Democrats are evidently prepared to go as far as may be necessary, and further than the Republicans can possibly go. So that what we need a "Solid North" for is not to put down State-right theories, or illicit distilleries, so much as to save the national credit, and protect private property from spoliation under the forms of law. Our greatest danger lies in the optimism which leads people to believe that the Communistic craze will pass away like other crazes, and "all come out right in the end," in the usual American fashion. The fact is that Communistic attacks on social order, once begun, have as yet been nowhere put down without bloodshed, and that the control of Congress over the currency is, and will continue to be as long as it exists, an incentive of the strongest kind to Communistic organizations to struggle for the possession of the national legislature; that the distress among the working classes is enormously exaggerated and by no means accounts for the prevailing agitation, and that it would be the height of folly to suppose that we are near the end of it.

A chapter from the forthcoming Report of the Bureau of the Statistics of Labor in Massachusetts has been published, and contains the first official and approximately accurate statement of the number of the unemployed in that State. The two hundred thousand who we were told could find nothing to do dwindles in this report to something less than thirty thousand out of work, and this includes women as well as men. Moreover, these statistics were taken in June, when many mills and shoe-factories were idle. At present the number actually unemployed must be much less than here given, as all industries, and particularly the shoe-trade, have revived. The great grievance of the socialist reformers, therefore, impossibility of obtaining work, which has most won them sympathy and support, disappears, for when one deducts from the unemployed those who will never do work, either from indolence or because a roving or criminal life is more attractive, the surplus is not alarmingly great—not so large, indeed, as that which is almost monthly forced from Europe upon the Western prairies. It would be a political blessing if other States would follow this example and find out just how many of their inhabitants are really oppressed by scarcity of employ-

ment. Such reports would do much to diminish the sentimental sympathy with supposed hardship which is the source of a good deal of the popularity of visionary and demagogic schemes for the improvement of laboring men.

For a short period after Mr. Hayes's inauguration Governor Rice, of Massachusetts, either affected a certain approval of civil-service reform or confined himself to mild doubts of its practicability; but he has been gradually, like so many other prominent Republicans, gaining courage under the influence of the President's shortcomings, and has finally come out boldly, like Blaine, Conkling, and all the rest of them, with the declaration that "the attempt to make our civil service a permanent bureaucracy is one of the humbugs of the period," and that "if you scratch a civil-service agitator you will find a monarchist." In the next breath he declared himself warmly in favor of General Grant's re-election as a protection against "disorder, insubordination, and possible evil," or, in short, as a "saviour of society." In other words, the Governor is not even a constitutional monarchist. He is at heart a Caesarist, and likes a civil service in which the Caesar can give free play to his personal caprices, reward his favorites and punish his enemies. The Governor's opinions on these subjects, however, are mainly important for the light they throw back on the motives and designs of some of the manufacturers of the Cincinnati platform. Reading it now with their glosses and comments on it, it is impossible to avoid the conclusion that they meant it to be an instrument of fraud and deception, or, in other words, meant to catch the votes of the reformers with it and then disregard it totally. When an honest man listens to one of them now talking about its principal planks and recommending General Grant as a pretty good man for the Presidency after all, one cannot help feeling that the men who borrow one hundred dollars from the countryman till they can cash a draft, and then slip out through the door on the other corner, are somewhat harshly treated by the police.

The New York *Times* has thought it worth while to point out the last and grossest blunder of Gail Hamilton's letters to the *Tribune*, in which she maintains that places in the English civil service are still practically filled by patronage or "influence," having apparently no knowledge of the changes made in 1869, and having been imposed upon by some unnamed tide-waiter in Liverpool. She began the letters, however, by a blunder as gross and more discreditable. When Mr. Mundella, at that time member of Parliament for Sheffield, was here in the fall of 1870 he said publicly that he was unable to procure the appointment of anybody to the smallest office under his Government, and the statement was naturally quoted a good deal by civil-service reformers. But when Gail Hamilton began to demolish the reformers, she calmly exposed Mr. Mundella, by alleging in substance that he had been guilty of equivocation, inasmuch as the reason why he could get no appointments for his friends was the same as the reason why Fernando Wood could get no offices from General Grant—viz., that he was in opposition. The fact was that Mr. Mundella was a perfectly truthful and straightforward man and a prominent Liberal, and therefore a strong supporter of Mr. Gladstone's Ministry, which was then in power, and his assertion was strictly correct.

Gail Hamilton's design is to show, first, that there does not exist, and never has existed, in any age or country, any politician more delicate, high-minded, or clean-handed than Mr. James G. Blaine; secondly, that all stories of the existence of persons called reformers in other nations and at other periods, and of the occurrence at any time of changes in the nature of improvements in the administrative machinery of any civilized governments, are either fabulous or are founded on a mistaken interpretation of the texts. The letters would be very amusing reading if they were not the composition of a woman, but this makes the vituperative part of them thin and vinegary and repulsive. The wonder is not that a woman is found to supply them, for there is probably hardly a village in New England in

which a young woman could not be found who would be delighted to display her "culture" in this way, but that a paper like the *Tribune* should be willing to give them a considerable portion of its space after years of honorable opposition to machine politics—opposition in which its "Founder" actually perished in 1872. If from his present exalted position he looks through these letters and reads the Conkling apologetics, we fear he must often expose himself to reproof through the violence of his language.

There appears to be some consistence in the rumors of the approaching forced resignation of Commissioner Spear of the Patent Office, and it is stated that Gen. H. E. Paine, ex-member of Congress from Wisconsin, has been tendered the place and will probably accept it. In regard to the reasons for removing Mr. Spear we know nothing. We only know that the office was never better managed than during his incumbency, and that improper political influences never had a more inflexible opponent. Still, if not under an Administration solemnly pledged to civil-service reform, at least in Secretary Schurz's department removal should be presumed to be for cause; but to anticipate this explanation would be simplicity itself when we see Mr. Spear's successor taken not from the lower ranks of the Office itself, but from those of politicians out of employ and needing to be "provided for." Assuredly there are in the Office men qualified by character and experience to perform the duties of commissioner as ably and with as much loyalty to the public as Mr. Spear has performed them. In no other branch of the Government is it more imperative that appointment to the higher grades of service should be by promotion, or that it should be kept absolutely free from the suspicion of having been dictated by political considerations. It is not necessary to enquire into General Paine's character or capacity; he simply cannot bring to his new duties the preparation demanded of him, and his acceptance will be the signal for the revival of hope in the breasts of place-hunters, and of intrigues to secure a pliant commissioner through channels which we had hoped were finally closed by this Administration, whenever the pecuniary interests at stake are large enough to make the attempt worth while.

It is to be hoped that the telegraphic summary of Mr. Groesbeck's opening speech before the Paris Monetary Conference is incorrect. He is represented as "laying much stress on the popularity always enjoyed by silver in America," although the history of American coinage, as well as of the present attempt of the Government to get it into circulation, shows that the American people never has used it, or called for it, or liked it, except as small change. He is also said to have spoken of "the inadvertent manner in which the law of 1873 was passed," but if he was so reckless as this there is probably no foreign member of the Congress so ill-informed as to be deceived by him. It is to be hoped, too, that he did not try to "vindicate Congress from any suspicion of a selfish motive in restoring silver to its former status," because the foreign delegates must know that no speech was made in Congress last winter in favor of the Silver Bill—we say this advisedly—in which the selfish argument was not put in the foreground. In fact, nothing was more dwelt on by the supporters of the measure than the fact that its passage would enable American debtors to get the better of all creditors public and private, and open a great market for the product of the American mines. If his remarks are truly reported, they only show that the fear was well founded which so many entertained, that the American politicians sent to the Convention would take up its time with stump-speeches intended for effect at home instead of engaging in scientific discussion. It is but just to them, however, to wait for the mail before passing judgment on their utterances.

Meanwhile, a kind of silver panic has broken out in some parts of the South and West. When the remonetizing act was passed by Congress certain enterprising characters commenced the importation of trade dollars from California, which they bought at their



bullion value and sold to traders, manufacturers, and others having many small payments to make, on such terms that a good profit could be realized to both the importer and the jobber provided the latter could pass them off to his customers or his hands at par. This was at the time when people in some parts of Ohio were perishing for want of 412½ grains of silver in their dollars, and they naturally welcomed the Providence which brought them 420 grains for the same amount of property and labor. At the South the neighboring reservoir of Mexico was tapped by the same class of speculators, and Mexican dollars were sprinkled all over the land of Dixie, and even found their way as far north as Chicago. Eventually these rills of silver collected together in certain low-lying spots, such as retail grocery-stores, blacksmith-shops, and workmen's wallets, and it was gradually found that the banks would not take them on deposit either for savings or otherwise, that the wholesale merchants would not touch them, and that the original importers would only buy them back at about 95 cents each. So many letters were written to the Treasury Department by the deceived votaries of silver that the Director of the Mint was constrained to issue a circular on the subject showing that the trade dollar is not an American coin, although manufactured in our mints; that it has no legal tender properties anywhere, not even in China, where it belongs; that nobody is obliged to take it, and that those who do take it for one hundred cents will surely lose five or ten cents by the operation. The popularity of silver has not on the whole been heightened by the experience.

The advance of the Bank of England rate of discount to 5 per cent. has produced a sharp effect upon the foreign exchanges. The rate for sterling sight bills at once advanced to 4.89½, and \$500,000 gold was shipped by the next steamer. The rise in sterling was the more easily effected from the fact that the yellow fever had checked the drawing of cotton bills, and grain speculations had prevented the exportation of breadstuffs; higher rates, however, quickly brought out an increased supply of bills, and quotations fell below the figure at which specie could be profitably shipped. This condition of the exchanges naturally strengthened the gold premium, the quotation for which rose ¼ to ½. The low current rate of interest quickens the demand for United States bonds. The subscriptions for the 4 per cents continue at the rate of nearly \$1,000,000 per day; and the consequent anticipation of the calling-in of the 5-20's causes large sales of the latter, with a corresponding demand for other issues. The Secretary of the Treasury has issued a further call for \$5,000,000 of the 5-20's of 1865. In the stock market there has been a partial recovery from the late extreme fall in the issues of the Northwestern companies, and the present indications favor the prospect of a stronger market, especially as the crop reports begin to show that the damage to spring wheat in portions of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota is less serious than it was at first supposed to be. Silver in London has ranged at 52½d. to 52¾d. per ounce. The bullion value of the silver dollar here is 88.36 cents. The fall trade has been checked by the prevalence of the yellow fever at the South. Large orders for goods from Memphis, Louisville, and St. Louis have been countermanded, with consequent discouragement to the Southern branch of the trade. Otherwise the symptoms are healthy, the demand being steady and prices exhibiting a firmer tendency. Cotton goods are now 2½ to 5 per cent. higher than at the opening of the season.

The public in England is still trying to make up its mind, though with indifferent success, as to the probable working and result of the Anglo-Turkish Convention. Mr. Cross, the Home Secretary, declared in the debate on the Hartington resolution that the engagement to protect Turkey from attack had been made "with the express condition that Turkey reformed herself; that they (the Ministry) did not undertake to reform her." Mr. Bourke, the Under-Secretary, declared positively also that the guarantee of Asia Minor was conditioned on the reform of that country, and that if the condition were not complied with the guarantee ceased: that if the

Sultan introduced no reforms he was to be "left to his fate." The Sultan is therefore to be left to make the reforms himself, under British supervision, or rather with British agents watching to see whether his reforms are sufficient to sustain the Convention. It will, of course, always be open to Russia and other foreign Powers to complain of him for not reforming, and public opinion in England will be constantly appealed to both by pro-Turks and anti-Turks to decide whether he is enough of a reformer. He, on his part, takes a ground amusingly like that of our custom-house machine-men when they were forbidden to "control primaries." They said that while they were very willing to reform, and, in fact, on the whole rather liked reform, and would have reformed long ago if it had not been for the Democrats, their freedom of action as American citizens should not be interfered with. He says that he is and always has been a reformer, and, in fact, would have had all "necessary reforms" completed by this time if the Russians had only let him alone; and, like Collector Arthur, that every reform now called for by the reformers had been recommended and ordered years ago by either his ancestors or himself; he is now ready to go on reforming again, but he cannot permit any interference with his independence as a sovereign. The *Economist* makes no secret of its belief that he will not prove much of a reformer after all, that England will soon be sick of him as a protégé, and will abandon the Convention.

The sum of the week's operations in Bosnia is that General Szapary, who, with the Twentieth Division, was defeated at Tuzla on the 10th instant, after twelve hours of severe fighting, retreated with the loss of part of his artillery, not only to Gratzhanitz but to Doboi, on the right bank of the Bosna, at the junction of that river and the Spreza. Here, on the line of the communications of the main body, he was, at last accounts, awaiting reinforcements. He appears to have been closely followed up, and had to sustain a very heavy attack on Friday while in position, and another on Monday, in which the fighting was "prolonged." The activity of the insurgents in this northern portion of Bosnia is shown by the fact that the Austrian garrison at Banyaluka was assaulted, though ineffectually, on the 14th. Communications have also been threatened by the Turkish garrison from Livno, upwards of 3,000 strong, which had actually set out for the purpose when recalled by a demonstration in their rear from Dalmatia. As for the joint forces of General Philippovitch and the Grand Duke of Württemberg, 30,000 in number, their advance has been retarded both by the troubles behind them and by the resistance in front. On Friday they captured an entrenched position near Buzovaca, sufficiently strong to permit the enemy to retire in good order and with their guns, except on the left flank, which had been turned, and to take new positions at Visoka, in front of the capital. But the next day the insurgents were driven out by General Tegethoff, and on Monday this commander in conjunction with General Philippovitch successfully assaulted the heights around Serayevo, and entered the town amid house-to-house fighting "of the most terrible kind," which lasted all day. "Even the women," says the official despatch, "and the sick and wounded insurgents in the military hospitals participated in incredible scenes of the wildest fanaticism." The Austrian losses, "unfortunately, were not inconsiderable." In Herzegovina the situation is still menacing, and General Jovanovitch has not found it safe to leave Mostar in furtherance of the movement on Serayevo. The Austrians have gained some trifling successes near Stolatz, and are reported to have occupied Liubinye. As far south as Bilek more than 5,000 insurgents are said to be massed. The number of them in eastern Bosnia is estimated at 16,000; and thirty Turkish battalions stationed in the province, including five of regulars, have cast in their fortunes with them. This formidable opposition has led to the ordering of four more divisions to the seat of war, and has made the Austrian press very bitter in its denunciation of Turkish perfidy. Its change of tone, under the discipline of experience, is very interesting, and must give great satisfaction at Moscow and St. Petersburg. The Hungarians, who have no heart for fresh Slavie annexations, have suffered heavily in the field.

## THE PEACE OF BERLIN.

THE Treaty of Berlin has only just been ratified, and yet the instability of the situation it has created is already beginning to show itself—that is, about ten years sooner than was generally expected. Austria has met with unlooked-for difficulties in taking possession of Bosnia and Herzegovina, partly owing to the desolated condition of the country but largely to the language in which the Congress handed the spoil over to her. There can be little doubt that if Russia and Germany had had their way, it would have been presented to her in set terms as an addition to Austrian territory; but the susceptibilities of the British plenipotentiaries had to be respected, so it was given to her simply to be “administered” for an indefinite period, every one, of course, believing that in the end she would formally annex it to the Empire. The wording of the treaty, however, was just vague enough to give the Turks something to struggle for, and they have accordingly been pestered the Austrians for an acknowledgment of the Sultan's sovereignty, which the Congress did not formally abrogate, and for a definition of the term of the occupation, which the Congress did not formally declare permanent, and have very probably been supporting these applications by instigating or conniving at the Mussulman resistance. On the other hand, Servia has been greatly disappointed, both in not getting the whole of the territory occupied by her troops during the war, and in not having her dream of a great Servian kingdom realized by the annexation of Bosnia. Montenegro, too, owes to Austrian opposition the loss of one-half of the territory ceded to her by the Treaty of San Stefano, and the refusal to her of a national flag. All three, therefore, if not actually interested in making the Austrian occupation difficult, are sufficiently irritated and disappointed by it to become stimulators of discontent and hostility. The result is that the Austrians have found work for double the force they at first thought sufficient, and will probably have to contend for a year or two with a great deal of Mussulman turbulence. It is characteristic of the military ill-luck of the Empire that they should have entered on their task with inadequate means. Bismarck would have poured in so many troops that the first blow he struck would have made the malcontents quake for twelve months, and have made a second unnecessary. As long as Bosnia is not tranquil and its fate not definitely settled, agitations will continue along the frontier, and the hope or expectation of fresh combinations be kept up among the whole Slav population, and Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia will certainly be affected by them. In fact, the formation of a party in Eastern Rumelia to promote discontent and force the Sultan's hand, so as to lay him open once more to Russian rebuke and interference, has probably already begun.

How little the Porte has learnt from experience, and how ready it still is to play into the hands of its enemies, is shown in its present dealings with Greece. The recommendation of the Congress with regard to the rectification of the Greek frontier was in reality a command, with which it was the interest of the Porte to comply without further discussion. Instead of doing this, it has entered into a controversy with the Greeks, and proved to its own satisfaction in an elaborate note that the Greeks are not entitled to the cession of territory in consequence of anything they did or left undone during the war; which, of course, amounts to saying that the recommendation of the Congress ought not to have any weight. Bismarck treated the Turkish plenipotentiaries at the Congress with considerable roughness, and indicated very clearly that he had no bowels of compassion for the falling empire. It is not surprising, therefore, that this attempt to evade the decision of the Congress has drawn from him a remonstrance in no way distinguishable from a threat. In fact, he is said to have directed the German Minister to inform the Vizier that he was putting the existence of European Turkey in peril. France and Italy also will not be sorry to have an opportunity of showing by their support of the Greek demands that they too counted for something at the Congress.

The most serious cloud on the horizon, however, is that which has arisen through the renewed advance of the Russians in Central

Asia, the news of which seemed to come as an answer to the Anglo-Turkish alliance. The history of Russian conquests in Central Asia since 1846 is substantially that of British conquests in India—a continued process of accession brought about, in the main, in defence of previous acquisitions. A barbarous neighbor becomes troublesome and aggressive; he cannot be restrained by treaty, either because he is too perfidious or because he cannot control his own subjects; so that the only way of making him harmless is to annex him. Every step in this process has brought the Russians nearer to India, but also further from the base of supplies both in men and stores, for Central Asia does not furnish them, as India furnishes the British, with a recruiting-ground. Every step has, however, been made in a shamefaced way, and with both real and apparent anxiety to prevent its alarming England, and with an undoubted consciousness that England had little or nothing to fear from an advance in this direction as long as her native troops remained faithful. The handful of soldiers with which Russia could reach the Himalayas, even if she succeeded in winning over the Afghans, could make but little impression on the vast force which could be brought up by rail in the finest condition to oppose them, supposing the Sepoys to be as trustworthy and efficient as Lord Beaconsfield evidently thinks them and as they undoubtedly are. In fact, an attack on the British Empire in that quarter was a thing which on no reasonable view of military or political probabilities could be looked for in less than fifty years, and that was the only quarter in which Russia could assail British possessions without beating the British fleet.

Now, however, as Mr. W. E. Forster pointed out in his powerful speech before the Cobden Club the other day, England has made her frontier conterminous with that of Russia, fully one thousand miles nearer the Russian military capital—in fact, within easy reach of her principal southern railroad terminus; and along the whole of the line Russia can easily bring all her resources into play, so that she can actually attack India and draw the Indian troops to meet her at Kars, instead of having to go in search of them to Herat. If the news which the Paris *Temps* has published, and which the Moscow *Gazette* confirms, be true, that General Kaufmann started on the 23d of June at the head of an expeditionary force to march through Bokhara southward, and probably cross the Oxus and occupy Balkh, the Central Asiatic question has entered on a new phase. It was agreed, in the understanding between Lord Clarendon and Prince Gortchakoff, of which Mr. Gladstone boasted in his late speech, that whether Balkh was an Afghan province, as the British maintained, or a Bokharan province, as the Russians maintained, the Oxus was to be the Russian boundary on the south. If it is now crossed, it will show that Russia considers the Anglo-Turkish Convention a release from any obligation to restrain herself in that region, and also indicates her sense of a great improvement in her strategic position through the Anglo-Turkish Convention. She can repel an attack made on her in Afghanistan by simply marching out of Kars. One has only to think of the temptation which this will keep constantly open, in connection with the unsettled state into which the Treaty of Berlin has plunged Turkey, to feel sure that we are only witnessing the opening of the Eastern Question, and to doubt whether the great and long-expected revival of business will come until the political sky is clearer than it is now.

## THE GRANT MOVEMENT.

THE ostensible aim of those who are pushing General Grant forward as a candidate for the Presidency in 1880 is to set up an invincible barrier against Communism and currency inflation, and to put a stiff curb on the South. We are given to understand that the American people are so alarmed by Schwab and Kearney and their kind that they desire to proceed against them in some way different from that which a statesman would adopt; that they have so little confidence in the efficacy of their form of government that it is necessary to try something more speedy and summary. “We



need a strong government at Washington," says the Rev. Dr. Newman, in an interview reported by the *Chicago Inter-Ocean*, "and General Grant is an army of one." This veteran consular detective remarked further that "Hayes, John Sherman, and Schurz thought that Grant was dead, buried, and descended into hell; but," he added with the irreverence of the sand-lot orator of California, "the third day he rose again"! "Has he ever mentioned the next Presidency in his letters to you?" asked the reporter. "Yes," responded the doctor. "I wrote him that every one was asking me about his sentiments regarding the third term. He replied that he had been through the trials and labors of sixteen years of public life, and was taking a rest"; an answer quite as evasive and enigmatical as his letter to the chairman of the Republican State Convention of Pennsylvania in 1875 on the same subject.

Whether as an army of one or of any other number, the candidacy of any soldier in preference to a civilian at this time is a suggestion that anticipated mob lawlessness be met with organized lawlessness. This is peculiarly its intent when applied to Gen. Grant, whose disregard of law in the Executive office would have filled the founders of the Republic with amazement and horror. The favor with which this plan of dealing with the unruly elements of society has been received in many quarters is a much graver cause for apprehension than Communism. The safety of our civilization rests upon the traditional respect for law which leads nine out of ten Americans to look to the magistrate for the redress of private, and to the ballot for the redress of public wrongs. The immovable stone in the way of Communism on our soil is the instinctive and largely hereditary impulse to commit every grievance to a civil tribunal, if we have one fitted to take cognizance of it, and if not, to make one as speedily as possible. A late illustration of the force of this instinct (and a more notable one cannot be found in the history of any country) was the Electoral Commission to decide the dispute about the Presidency. Even the war of the rebellion was preceded by a Peace Conference of the highest respectability and of several weeks' duration. To weaken and tamper with this noble and conservative trait of national character is an act of criminal folly which every Republican editor is ready to condemn in Kearney, but which not a few of them are committing daily by suggesting Grant as a remedy for Communism. As an enforcer of law President Grant was never distinguished, unless it be a distinction to enforce more laws than there are on the statute-book. His uniform practice was to enforce those which were agreeable to him, and neither to enforce nor allow others to enforce those which were not. His proceedings in Louisiana in 1872 were so flagrantly lawless that his own party in the Senate could find no apology for them, and one of the last acts of his term was to drive from office with every mark of anger all those engaged in prosecuting the whiskey-thieves, and to pardon the most notorious culprits among them who had been sent to the penitentiary by the discriminating juries of the country.

In what way General Grant became the ideal enemy of the Greenbackers, so that he should be selected to save the country from them, it is not easy to make out. In one notable instance he vetoed an inflation bill after allowing everybody, including his own Cabinet, to understand that he intended to sign it. He probably had no fixed ideas on the subject; he had never shown any before, nor has he since. The public may be duly thankful for any accident which wards off a great misfortune; but only victims of the grossest superstition invoke the accident for a permanent shield and remedy. In selecting a chief magistrate with reference to the currency question it would seem desirable to choose from among those who understand the subject or profess to do so, so that it may be known with some certainty what he will do in a given case. No such claim has been made for General Grant in any quarter. and the only thing resembling it is a prevailing suspicion that he will be found on the side of capital in all emergencies. The more champions of this unreasoning sort capital has the worse will it be in the long run for capitalists.

Coupled with the notion that General Grant is needed to put a new curb on the South the allegation is made that he alone can carry

a sufficient number of Southern States to elect the Republican ticket. In other words, the South, having missed the enjoyment and solace of the curb through the laxity of President Hayes, is so desirous of renewing the experience that she will abandon Hampton, Nicholls, and the now Democratic Returning Boards in order to vote for the patron of Kellogg and Chamberlain. This is sufficiently humorous, but not more so than the assumption that the best interests of the country require that something should be done to the South which is not done equally to the North. During the eight years of Grant the South was a scene of pillage and carnage relieved by breathing-spells of military government. Since his departure it has been as peaceful and orderly as any other part of the country, and it presents fewer signs of disturbance to-day than Pennsylvania or California. This is a case of *post hoc* and *propter hoc* as well. The South is quiet and contented not only after the expiration of his Presidential term, but because of its expiration. In order that no form of nonsense may be wanting from this chapter of false pretences, it remains to be mentioned that General Grant's last public act—the last after pardoning the whiskey-thieves—was to notify Packard that he would not recognize him as governor of Louisiana or tolerate the doings of his retainers any longer. In other words, he indicated his intention to do (after his time for doing it had gone by) the very things in respect of the South which have since been done by his successor. Put this fact beside the pretence of his friends that he ought to be elected again in order to reverse President Hayes's Southern policy, and thereby win Louisiana and South Carolina back to the Republican column, and we have a medley of reasons more curious, if possible, than those lately advanced to account for Mr. Sumner's removal from the chairmanship of a certain Senate committee.

The only bottom that can be found for General Grant's candidacy in 1880 is that Mr. Conkling is intensely unpopular, while Mr. Blaine has been convicted of transactions that put him out of the question; and nobody else has sufficient prominence in the party and familiarity with the machine to be much talked about. The country editors in default of any rising leader fall back upon a departed one, and, as Mr. Foster, of Ohio, pithily said to an interviewer, are trying to make yesterday serve the purposes of to-morrow. It will be a futile endeavor. If the Republican party is bereft of statesmen, that fact can be best disclosed by nominating General Grant for a third term in the blazing light of the desperately bad term he last finished. There are some signs that the immoral tendencies of the Democratic party will repel the large and increasing number of independent voters who gave Mr. Tilden a clear majority of the popular vote notwithstanding the fair promises and unblemished record of Mr. Hayes. If it is desired to frighten them away from the Republican party also, the coming shadows of those who ruled in Washington with and under Grant will be the most effective spectre for the purpose.

#### SCHOOL-HUNTING.

"SCHOOL-HUNTER," who summed up in our columns last week the result of his enquiries for a school from which his girls would be turned out simply with good health, a taste for knowledge, and a proper sense of their own ignorance, has found that he cannot get such a school, partly because it would cost more than most parents could afford to pay, and partly because most parents would not patronize it if it were within their reach. The responses which his demands have called out from teachers all tell the same story—that they have to depend for their success on the multiplicity of the branches of knowledge they undertake to communicate. A curious illustration of the severity of the competition which now prevails in what, rightly considered, is one of the noblest of the professions, and that in which a mercenary spirit is most out of place, is to be found in the fact that two principals of schools have offered us a commission if we would induce "School-Hunter" to place his daughters with them. He is very much too wary a man, however, for any such arrangement, however anxious we might be to make a little money out of his perplexity. He represents, we believe, a large and

growing class of parents who are disposed to revolt both against the kind of education now offered to girls and the kind which many of the most active friends of female education are clamoring for. He seeks, in other words, for his girls what so many fathers are seeking for their boys, an education which shall be a real preparation for the life which they will probably lead, not for the life which speculators on woman's capacity would like to see them lead. There is in the community a large body of thoughtful though silent fathers and mothers who are getting rather tired of having their children used for the verification of social and psychological hypotheses, very much as Weston and O'Leary are used by physiologists for the verification of views about muscle, fat, and digestive power. A very large proportion of the most energetic educational reformers want women's schools and colleges to be organized and conducted with the view of testing the question whether woman cannot equal man in any of the pursuits of which he has hitherto had a monopoly. This may be a useful and even praiseworthy experiment, but there are many parents, we repeat, who do not wish to furnish the materials for it, and who, in sending their girls to school, seek the same results as when they send their boys to school and college—that is, as respectable an equipment for the kind of work which will most probably fall to their lot in life as their mental and moral constitution will allow to be bestowed on them. The weightiest charge that is now brought against the men's universities in this country, and indeed in every country, is that they take some very precious years for what is not a direct preparation for active life. The changes made in all college curriculums, too, within the past twenty years look more and more to the supply of special training for special tastes and particular professions as the world now is, and do not aim at the production of an ideal man who will do something very different from what men are now doing or have ever done.

If we look at the education of women, either as it is or as many of those who are most occupied with the condition of women in society think it ought to be, we find the traces of preparation in it for probable duties exceedingly faint, a fact which "School-Hunter" seems to have had borne in on him very unpleasantly. We have, unluckily, no marriage statistics in our census returns, but we may fairly take those of England as a guide in discussing the probable occupation of the bulk of American women. In them we find that eighty per cent. of women reaching the marriageable age marry; so that if education ought to be a preparation for the duties of life, female schools and colleges ought to be arranged and conducted mainly with reference to the needs of the eighty out of every hundred who will be wives and mothers, and not of the remaining twenty who may possibly lecture, write books, teach, or practice law or medicine, or live in solitary leisure. Now there is no denying that a woman, even if married, is not only none the worse, but may be a great deal the better of being as accomplished, or learned, or literary, or artistic as her natural powers will permit; but every rational system of education has to estimate not the absolute but relative importance of acquirements, and adopt its training to the scale thus formed. For instance, the most important thing in life for a married woman is good health. Without this, all other things—talents, charms, opportunities—lose a large part of their value, and in extreme cases life itself becomes a burden. There is probably no fact of modern society so plain and palpable as this. One would naturally expect, therefore, that every parent and teacher in the country would make the accumulation of physical strength in early youth the first and greatest consideration, and that in all school curriculums nothing would be for one moment allowed to interfere with it. As matters stand, however, teachers and parents seem to accept what Miss Cobbe calls "the little health of women" as part of the order of nature, and as if the question whether a woman should pass through life sickly or strong was as unmanageable as the question whether her nose should be straight or her ears small. In other words, their attitude towards it is strictly fatalistic. If she is strong, well and good; if she is "delicate," well and good too. Such is her nature. But if female education were a preparation for life, as men's professional schools are, there would be female schools for health simply, in which other things would be taught only so far as they ministered to health, and not one iota further; for what does it profit a woman if she have the tongue of angels and cannot leave her bed or the sofa?

As regards the instruction given at most girls' schools, it may be said to consist of languages, music, a little drawing and painting, and a smattering of science. The modern languages are for the most part utterly forgotten before the girl has been two years at home; not ten per cent. of the married women sing or play a note

after their first child is born; very few are mistresses of a clear and vigorous English style, and as to the sciences (especially "astronomy, ancient and modern geography, the use of the globes") the less said about it the better. Women are not called on in active life for any of these things, and they naturally, and often properly, do not in active life trouble their heads about them. Men do just the same thing under like circumstances. What women might get in learning even useless things which they will forget is a taste for knowledge and the power of acquisition; but nobody, male or female, ever got this by any process except the process of mastering something. It is never obtained by learning a little of a thing and never feeling sure of what one knows. No mastery of a subject is possible to anybody who is expected to potter over so many subjects as are now exacted of girls at school. We think it no exaggeration to say that a girl would get a far better education, in the best and true sense of that term, by spending three or four years in thoroughly acquiring one language, or in making herself an authority on one subject—if it were only the political condition of Central Asia—through reading and digesting everything written about it, than by following the average school course, and that she would, with concomitant attention to health, leave school with a greater sense of and capacity for the ordinary demands of life, than even one girl in a hundred now gets from her present school-training. Thousands of men have first drawn their courage for the race they have to run from the confidence inspired by having completely mastered some one thing, and knowing that they cannot be floored on it. In society one meets every day apparently very dull and silent men, who cut a sorry figure at a dinner-table, and who, if women, would go home mortified and annoyed by a sense of their own insignificance, but whose self-respect and complacency are entirely sustained by the consciousness that if the conversation had only run on one particular thing, everybody would have had to make way for them. And then to a person who knows one thing thoroughly, not only does the task of learning some other thing lose all its terrors, but he contracts a wholesome dislike of half-knowledge and vague beliefs and foggy assertions, which keeps him in perpetual mental health.

What most women need next after health and power of acquisition, and the confidence which springs from having acquired something, is a tolerable amount of administrative capacity. Housekeeping is administration on a small scale. It includes the faculty of getting the most for one's money, and managing servants and children. If it were likely to be a man's vocation to the extent to which it is likely to be a woman's, he would undoubtedly be prepared for it by some sort of apprenticeship. He would have to learn in some subordinate capacity the proper mode of buying and preparing food, and of procuring and taking care of furniture and clothing, and of ruling servants. He would be trained to receive company by some experience of the art of entertaining, both in its material and its æsthetic aspect. No one would ever guess, however, from an inspection of an average school course, that a girl was to be the head of that most complex result of civilization, a modern household, with its thousand duties, responsibilities, and relations. No one would ever suppose that the very end and aim of a nation's existence, the main use of its armies and navies, and commerce, and police, and manufactures, and inventions, was the multiplication of well-ordered parlors with agreeable and efficient women in them, and yet this is strictly true. All our toiling, and fighting, and travelling, and producing ends in this. When a man has set up a happy home he feels, and the whole community agrees with him, that the best work of his life is done.

It is not only good administration, however, in the ordinary sense of buying and managing and enforcing discipline, that women are expected to contribute to it. They are expected to make it attractive to the outside world by good manners, and, in fact, are expected by their cultivation of manners to restrain or counteract the tendency to brutality and coarseness among men which seems an inseparable accompaniment of the régime of competition. The foundation of good manners is undoubtedly tact and quick sympathy, and these cannot be implanted by any didactic process; but a great deal can, nevertheless, be done at school to aid in the formation of manners. For example, there is no such hindrance to good manners as fussiness and pretence—that is, an uncontrollable and restless desire to produce the impression that you are something other, if not better, than your natural self. Now, fussiness and pretence, the absence of "modest stillness and humility," are all over the country the curse of girls' schools. The evil reaches its last limits in the city high-schools; a street-car full of the older girls of one of these institutions, over-dressed, eager for the notice of the passengers, talking in loud



"hollering" voices, confident to the last degree in the power of their own attractiveness, ignorant of what reserve means, and anxious that every word they say should be heard by everybody within ten rods, is perhaps as disheartening a spectacle of the kind as our civilization presents, because it indicates the absence of all moral and social training from the most important seats of education we have. But the root of the evil as well as the evil itself is to be found in a large number of our girls' schools. The daily attempt in which so many of them are engaged to cover ground that cannot be covered, to make a show of instruction which cannot be given, and which teachers and pupils know is *not* given, and which has no real adaptation to the practical needs of life, which every girl secretly intends to forget as soon as she is married, naturally creates an atmosphere of sham in which good manners cannot grow, or can only grow in rare natures. No woman's manners are good if she is not simple, and she cannot be simple after passing some of her best years in trying to impose on people as the possessor of accomplishments which she really does not possess.

One of the commonest defects of women's domestic manners is, as regards women in moderate circumstances, a sort of false shame about their mode of life. Not one of them in a hundred has been prepared by training to meet anything in the shape of an unexpected visit or intrusion with cheerful courtesy, or even calm fortitude. On the contrary, the school influence, in nine cases out of ten, has helped to give to the discovery by a stranger that they do not always dress and eat as they seem to do on gala days, the air of a calamity which the strongest natures cannot be expected to resist. The result has been, both in the United States and in England, almost to extinguish simple and informal hospitality. An average woman, among plain people, is crushed by a friend dropping unexpectedly in to a meal, and sits at the table in silent and flustered pain, whereas her education ought to have prepared her to meet such crises with a smiling front, if not with positive enjoyment. Part of the drill of every school ought to be the reception by a wife in an old gown, at a dinner of corn beef and cabbage, of an unlooked-for guest, thoughtlessly brought home by a reckless husband.

#### CANADIAN POLITICS.

AUGUST 14, 1878.

A GENERAL election and a great battle between the parties are approaching in Canada. To most Americans Canada is a political Timbuctoo, yet she is likely to exercise a serious influence over the political future of this continent. Aristocratic England does not know very much about her. In a proclamation of the British Privy Council the other day Ontario was called "that town," and in the article of the leading journal on the fisheries award Sir Alexander Grant was put for Sir Alexander Galt. Still British Toryism has a strong and by no means baseless notion that Canada may serve a very gratifying purpose as a political thorn in the side of the American Republic, and an obstacle to the consolidation of democratic institutions in the New World. With the Conservative reaction and the ascendancy of "Jingoism" in England has come a renewal of the effort to cultivate Imperial and anti-American sentiment in Canada. The mission of an English Princess with her husband to form a Colonial Court may be regarded as a new departure of Toryism, and as a move in the same game which has created an Empress of India. Flunkeyism is a great power. It is not chimerical on the part of the Tory leaders to hope that the antagonism to republican sentiment and institutions, which by the fall of slavery was deprived of its basis at the South, may in time find a new basis at the North, and that a renewal of disturbance in some form may once more relieve the world of the demoralizing spectacle of a great community prospering without a House of Peers. On the other hand, Canada, if she can escape the influence of aristocracy and take her place as a community of this continent, is capable of lending material aid to the New World in the solution of its great problems. The British Canadian belongs to the true self-governing element, and the French Canadian, though poor and priest-ridden, is a good man.

The Canadian Constitution is an imitation of the British, without the forces which move the model machine. Government is party, but the parties have no basis. Their original basis was the question of responsible government, which formed an adequate ground for a division analogous to that between the Whigs and Tories in England. To this, however, other questions succeeded, cognate, and, though inferior in importance, important enough to furnish a dividing line for parties: the question of the clergy reserves, that between religious and secular education,

and, above all, the question as to the proportion of representation between Upper and Lower Canada. Those provinces had been yoked but not united, and the political struggle between them was embittered by antagonism of race and of religion. The Conservative party now found its chief stronghold in French Canada, which resisted change, and the Catholic priesthood of which, like their brethren in other countries, had a general leaning to the reactionary side. The leader of the Conservatives, during this latter period, was Sir John Macdonald. The leader of the Liberals was Mr. George Brown, the proprietor of the *Toronto Globe*, the most widely circulated journal in Canada, which, under the guise of a public instructor, has always been his personal organ, and by its conduct may be said to have signally illustrated the vices of organism and the evils of a clandestine connection between public life and the press. The superior ability of Sir John Macdonald contributed largely to the retention of power by his party. Once, by an accident, Mr. Brown grasped the premiership, but he held it only for a few days. The party struggle, however, at last brought government to a deadlock, the embarrassment caused by which conspired with the alarm produced by the quarrel between the British aristocracy and the American Republic during the Civil War to bring about Confederation. It was hoped that the antagonism between Upper and Lower Canada would be merged in the Dominion. Confederation was carried by a coalition cabinet in which Sir John Macdonald and Mr. Brown sat together. Mr. Brown, however, soon decamped. The reason he assigned was a difference of opinion on a point connected with negotiations for Reciprocity. But his conduct was universally ascribed to a mixture of personal jealousy with anxiety about the circulation of his journal, which did not thrive so well when it was on the side of government as it had in opposition. The other representatives of his party in the coalition cabinet condemned his secession by refusing to depart with him; and their judgment was emphatically confirmed by the people when he tried the issue at the polls by running for the county of Ontario. After that defeat Mr. Brown retired behind his type; and though he has completely retained the control of his party by the power of his journal, he has not again attempted to lead it in the open field.

He succeeded, however, in getting the party lines drawn again, and in plunging the country once more into a strife of factions, which, all organic questions having been settled, had ceased to have any rational object or any moral justification. The name "Grits," which has superseded that of Reformers, aptly denotes by its senselessness the absence of any common principle or political purpose in a combination which is, in fact, merely a political ring having its centre in the *Globe*; while the Conservatives show by the prefix of "Liberal" their consciousness that they have nothing to conserve. Of course the struggle thus renewed was embittered by its merely personal character; and as it was prolonged and grew more desperate, intrigue, calumny, and corruption increased. At length corruption culminated in the Pacific-Railway scandal, and, by the just verdict of the people, the Government of Sir John Macdonald fell.

Not only did the parties fail after Confederation to find themselves new grounds of existence, they failed to extend themselves to the new provinces which Confederation had brought in. Those provinces still form interests apart with which the leaders of the parties make separate terms. The perpetual auction is amusing though expensive; so is the perpetual bidding for the Roman-Catholic vote, especially on the side of Mr. Brown, a Scotch Presbyterian and once a sledge-hammer of Popery, now compelled, in order that government may remain in the hands of persons of high principle, to woo the political favor of the Scarlet Woman.

There is as little of real difference between the parties and their leaders in respect of general character and tendency as in respect of specific policy. Nobody apprehends anything reactionary at the hands of the "Liberal Conservatives"; and the main object of their leader, if he were once in office, would probably be to keep it, and to live a quiet life. On the other hand nothing Liberal, in any sense of the term, can be connected with the name of Mr. Brown. Once he was a son of demagogic thunder, but he has now been at Court; his loyalty, once doubted by governors-general, exceeds that of governors-general themselves. The measure of his political Liberalism he has shown by putting a veto in the usual form of personal denunciation on the movement for the reform of the Senate, the only important question which the Liberal party has.

Upon the fall of Sir John Macdonald, after the Pacific scandal, a "Grit" government was formed under Mr. Alexander Mackenzie. Mr. Brown remained safe in his journal-office, only recognizing his own

merit by an appointment to a senatorship. Mr. Mackenzie is regarded by all impartial judges as a most respectable man, and one who, if he were his own master, would try to do right. But he is not strong enough to be his own master. The *Globe* made him, the *Globe* can unmake him, and he has to do the bidding of the *Globe*. Till lately he had a colleague, Mr. Edward Blake, who, standing more by his own strength, was disposed to set the *Globe* at defiance and caused much uneasiness to Mr. Brown. But the air of the "Grit" cabinet undermined the health of a sensitive man of principle, and Mr. Blake's retirement has left Mr. Brown once more entirely master of his own household. The relation between the dominant journalist and the ostensible Prime Minister has been compared to that between Mr. Thurlow Weed and Mr. Seward; but the comparison is unjust to the position of Mr. Seward, if not to the habits of Mr. Weed. This subordination of government to a newspaper is a curious addition to our museum of political inventions. It combines the corruption of the administration with the demoralization of the press. It involves a constant effort on the part of the journal to maintain a monopoly of opinion by literary terrorism; and no ordinary organ of libel hunts down obnoxious or inconvenient people and butchers their reputations with such business-like tenacity as the *Globe*. To crush independent journalism is also necessarily a continual aim, and one which, in a narrow area, it costs some exertion to defeat.

As a deliverer of society from such a régime and a restorer of parliamentary Government, Sir John Macdonald might command some Liberal sympathy, even if his Toryism were of the narrowest kind. But he is an easy-going man of the world, with a mind, unlike that of his rival, widened by culture, perfectly tolerant in matters of opinion, and ready to act in public with any one who will act with him. He is socially very popular, and the qualities which secure his social popularity enter beneficially into his statesmanship. He is well fitted to hold together the various and somewhat discordant elements of which the Dominion is composed. For the same reason his return to power would hold out a hope of some sort of coalition government and of a respite from the faction fight, in the continuance of which thoughtful men begin to see political and financial ruin. On the other hand the fierce struggle for power in which he has been all his life engaged has profoundly affected his moral character as a statesman. It has made him unscrupulous in his choice of expedients, and, what is still worse, in his choice of men. The character of some of the men about him is, in the eyes of good citizens, the greatest objection to his return to power. What lengths he will go when hard pressed, in the use of corruption, the Pacific-Railway scandal shows. But it is for his party that he sins; his own disinterestedness is above suspicion, whereas on the reputation of his austere rival calumny has fixed its tooth. Sir John has personal infirmities, too, on which Mr. Brown does not fail as a guardian of morals to descant, naturally forgetting that the daily abuse of a public journal for the purposes of self-interest and malevolence may be not less inconsistent with perfect moral beauty than occasional excess in wine. The people having punished Sir John, and finding by experience that his opponents are not much purer than he is, seem now rather inclined to forgive and reinstate him. Against this culpable leniency in the case of so grievous a sinner Mr. Brown indignantly protests. But the effect of his homilies has been somewhat impaired by the discovery of what is called in campaign language the "Big-Push Letter"—a letter in which the chief of Reformers called upon the president of a joint-stock bank for money to be used in making a "big push" at the crisis of a general election. A judge before whom the letter came in the course of a libel suit commented severely on its contents. The judge was in due course assailed with three columns of billingsgate in Mr. Brown's organ, but the effect of his remarks was not removed from the public mind.

In Canada, as in other countries, commercial depression has begotten a desire for fiscal change. Protectionism has been gaining ground, at least in the Upper Provinces, and the Opposition there has taken up the cry. Probably nothing very definite is meant by Protection. The commercial autonomy of the colony is doubtful, and without commercial autonomy protection which would affect the interest of the British manufacturer must obviously have its limits. Sir John Macdonald himself confines his pledges to a readjustment of the tariff. The strictest economists must admit that Canada, cut off as she is from the markets of her own continent by her political connection with England, is placed in a position of artificial disadvantage, and that there is nothing unnatural, at all events, in her casting about for a legislative remedy; but her manufacturers will probably be led in the end to the conclusion that the one thing which they need is complete free-trade with the United States.

The contest will certainly be very bitter, and probably it will be very close. The most competent and unbiased judges are at present entirely in doubt as to the result. A party conflict in Canada is always like the battle of Bosworth Field, with Stanley hovering between the two camps. In this case, however, there are two Stanleys—the Maritime Provinces and the Roman Catholic Church. How these will go no one as yet can say. In the attendance and enthusiasm at his campaign meetings Sir John Macdonald has had greatly the advantage; but allowance must be made for his personal popularity and his attractiveness as a speaker. Mr. Brown and the "Grits" have all the patronage of the Governments, both central and provincial, in their hands. This is a powerful engine, and it will be used to the utmost of its power.

### THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—III.

#### THE ARCHITECTURE.

PARIS, August 6, 1878.

THE fine-art galleries are situated on the central axis of the Champ-de-Mars building, and occupy its whole length of half a mile, except for a space in the very centre. Here is placed the Pavilion of the City of Paris, a large, independent building, devoted to the display and explanation of the public works of the city, its administration and police, its sanitary improvements, its artistic and literary labors of to-day and its historic past. This building, which forms the very nucleus of all the vast exhibition of industry and thought, is not unworthy of its destination. There is much in its design worthy of study and worthy of praise. The construction is wholly of cast and wrought-iron, in the slenderest possible uprights and ties; within, round columns support girders in much the usual way, and a flat ceiling, mostly of glass, is successfully treated without being especially novel or remarkable. But without there is much that is new in the adaptation of material: the slender square and T-shaped bars forming the exterior frame are grouped in threes to form corner-piers at the twelve main angles of the building; and the faces, three feet broad, of these piers are made up of pale-red terra-cotta in elaborate designs of scrolls, arabesques, and interlacing circles, in moderate relief. It must be understood that no attempt has been made to give these constructive and richly-ornamented main piers any look of solid stone, of homogeneous piles of material, of the architecture of any past time or any recognized "style"; the corner pieces of iron have their own little capitals, and the central adornment is left to confess itself as an external thing, aiding the construction in no way, or at most protecting the braces and ties which stiffen the pier it ornaments. The larger spaces of wall are of plain, brownish-red brick; not of smooth and uniform quality, but picturesquely irregular, and diversified here and there by a moderate use of bricks of other colors. The cornice is slight, a mere projection of the eaves, unimportant in the general aspect of the building. The great doorways alone are more elaborate. Each of them has a frame or architecture of similar make to that of the angle pilasters already described, but double; the outermost division is filled with terra-cotta tiles like those mentioned above, of different design, bolder, with more relief, and this pattern forms a gable above the door. Within comes the doorway proper, with sloping or splayed jambs and lintel, composed of glazed tiles in relief and in vivid colors, like those tiles sold by Minton's and Maw's agencies in New York under the name of Majolica. This is better in effect than one would suppose. The iron-work has been skilfully enough colored to suit all this polychromatic material; generally the colors of the slender framework are grey and blue, of no great prominence, harmonizing with the dull reds and the more vivid glazed colors of the ceramic ware.

The line of art-galleries, eighty feet wide in the main and flanked by little projecting wings, which is carried the whole length of the Champ-de-Mars building, except where the Pavilion of Paris interrupts it, is absolutely devoid of architectural pretension, except where that interruption gives it two fronts facing the ornamental structure between them. Here two huge arcaded porticoes have been built, called Loggias from a far-away resemblance they have to the famous and noble structure at Florence. They are not of importance, but they shelter some very extraordinary productions of modern French decorative art. In the north-west one, that nearest the entrance from the river, the central doorway has a strange, and it is safe to say awkward, architectural door-piece, and corresponding frontons on the two sides, of equally inappropriate disposition; but all this is hardly seen for the brilliant ornamentation in painted tiles that covers the whole wall-space around them and within the arches at the sides. A vast landscape, perhaps thirty-six feet from



the frame below to the arched ceiling which bounds it, disappearing indeed behind the architrave and the sculptured Diana, but carried through as if continuous behind them, entirely in its natural colors, or such as in art of this kind pass for natural colors, is set up in each of the side archways; and these, with six allegorical figures of life-size, in arched niches, are all composed of enamelled tiles, made and painted at the Deek factory, after designs by the architect, M. Jüger. One hesitates to decide upon the artistic value of all this. It is evidently not well used, not well combined with the purely architectural forms; also it is plain that to attempt a big landscape in this material was to attempt a *tour de force*, even after the great experience the French designers and workmen have had during the past fifteen years, and the immense development of this art of decorative pottery. Certainly that which is before us here is not beautiful, but it would take so little to make it beautiful, one hopes so much from the very next effort in the same direction, that it seems to the eye of hope better than it really is. The borders and frames are delicious; one pattern, which might just as well be sent to New York for sale as the hideous English tiles so constantly thrust upon us, is of violet and greenish blue, arranged in a sort of interlacing square fret, with a grey and orange flower in high relief in the middle of each square, and smaller orange "dog-teeth"—not necessarily a costly frieze.

The corresponding front at the southeast end is better because more reserved and tranquil, although there is included in it one of the most renowned pieces of decorative art in the whole Exhibition—the *Porte des Beaux-Arts*, designed by Paul Sédille, architect, and executed in ceramic ware by J. P. Lebnitz, of Paris. The greater part of this vast square-topped doorway is in light, reddish-brown terra-cotta, in relief, and some of the reliefs gilded, apparently not in the fabrication but afterwards. But this surrounds and frames in a broad frieze of colored and enamelled tiles, carried up each side of the door and across the top, and on a scale and with a boldness of effect probably unexampled. Each tile is about two feet four inches square, and makes the whole width of the frieze. The decoration is in enamels slightly relieved above the smooth surface, as when a thick, sticky liquid is allowed to take its own way on a horizontal surface; these enamels form flowers in white, dark green, reddish maroon, and pale blue, on a deep yellow ground, and each piece of enamel is separated from its neighbors by a line slightly incised in the paste of the tile, and showing in buff, not glazed. Hitherto no photograph of this doorway has been published, which is to be regretted, as it comes nearer to a realization of our dreams of an architecture in iron and pottery than anything else within reach, except the Pavilion of Paris, and is more successful in decorative effect even than that fine building.

On each side are showy pieces of ornamental design—one a sort of arcade with a design of figures (I have forgotten what, as I write; something "after" Fra Angelico) all made of enamelled pottery, some of whose tones remind one of Della Robbia work; all exhibited by Virebent, of Toulouse. On the other side are paintings after Raphael and Hippolyte Flandrin, "*sur lave, grand feu, imitant la fresque*," by Gillet, of Paris. This art, of which no other specimen appears, but of which this example gives a favorable idea, undertakes to be absolutely unalterable by weather or noxious gases. A knowledge of the process is necessary to enable one to judge of its utility.

On either side of this line of galleries is the open street—Rue de France on the French side, with a plain iron and glass wall where the main building of the French department begins; Rue des Nations on the other side, fronted by a series of façades. Each of these streets is one continuous gravel walk, except that shrubbery and plants are introduced at the angles and in the nooks left between projecting buildings; and each is supplied with an abundance of seats, of chairs and benches, of fixed settles of architectural look, of light chairs made of steel ribbon and springs or of wire, of sentry-box-looking covered seats, of basket-work for shelter as well as rest, all furnished by the competitive liberality of the makers of such things. Perhaps the crowd here at Paris is never equal to that at Philadelphia, but there are 80,000 visitors a day, or thereabouts; and yet never does one look in vain for a seat, whether in the park or in the vestibules and main halls, under the colonnades of the Trocadéro or in these interior streets. Of course, there are departments in the Exhibition itself where seats are not placed, where there is no room for them.

The foreign division is in turn divided among the different nationalities into blocks of its whole width, so that as you pass down any of the passages which run the length of the building you go through Great Britain and her dependencies first (entering from the river front), then the United States, then Sweden, and so on—Germany alone being conspicuous by

her absence. The front of each of these subdivisions on the Rue des Nations is the space allowed for the façade thereof, and the British, having a front of five hundred and fifty feet, have made five buildings of it—five separate edifices, with spaces of twenty feet or more between. In one way this has been a peculiarly happy decision; the five cottage-like, two-story buildings they have erected excite no feeling of incongruity such as that caused by the only other important façade, that of Belgium; they don't look too massive and elaborate to be put up for six months, while yet they are not mere plaster casts of buildings, mere models, like some others. Mr. Norman Shaw's design of a "Queen Anne" front would be more valuable if in real brickwork instead of a mere advertisement of a new process—one of those vexatious devices for imitating one material by means of another, or one construction by a different one, with which architecture in her struggles for life finds herself loaded. The next house is larger; it is the residence of the President of the Commission, the Prince of Wales, when he is here, and is an Elizabethan structure a hundred feet long and two stories high, faced with "plaster in imitation of brickwork, with Bath-stone dressings," the design of Mr. Gilbert R. Redgrave, the architect of the Commission. It is a sufficiently accurate historical document, and there can be no objection to the frank copying for this peculiar occasion of a characteristic national style in any material which may best serve the temporary purpose. It is possible, too, that Mr. Redgrave has done better in giving this façade than if he had copied accurately an existing piece of Elizabethan work, for the characteristic buildings in that style are on too large a scale. At the same time, in such a front the merits of the style cannot be seen—its picturesqueness, its large and rude nobility. What is seen is its ugly detail, its fantastic and meaningless ornamentation. The third front is entirely of the Lambeth pottery of Doulton & Co., the design of Messrs. Tarring & Wilkinson, in that style of ultra-florid, modernized, Italo-English Gothic which has been called "Victorian"—a style the worst vices of which pottery seems expressly fitted to subserve. The fourth and fifth houses are "half-timbered" English country-houses of great simplicity and quiet fitness; the one designed by Mr. Redgrave of the style of Elizabeth or James I., with its spirited arcading and framework, essential or not so essential, all in unpainted timber—a specimen of the most national of English styles, a thing unknown upon the Continent, and as important and peculiar in the history of English art as the open-timber roofs of churches and great halls, even of Westminster Hall itself. The fifth is a capital parsonage, or something such, of the time of William III., designed by Mr. Colcutt; the timber framework much less elaborate, painted plain white, and the wall-spaces filled up with masonry having the stuccoed surface scratched in pretty patterns.

The Yankee front comes next, and is not architectural at all—a mere railway station, and therefore not offensive. It is a fortunate escape from what we might have had.

The Japanese have done their work with that contented simplicity which is one of the happiest features of their national character and art—an art which knows how to turn the simplest devices to good purpose, and to ornament elaborately only when the right time has come. They have nothing but a blank wall on which a great map of Japan and a plan of Tokio are displayed in quiet colors, and between these a doorway doubled by an advanced gateway of heavy timber, and flanked by ingenious little fountains, where water trickles from the petals and leaves of aquatic plants in faience.

The different nations have indeed differed widely in their ways of undertaking their task. Switzerland gives a plaster front which might be anything, a mere enclosure with huge openings in it to show off stained glass—none of which seems at a preliminary inspection to be important, Austria-Hungary, with the longest stretch of front of all the nations after Great Britain, has set up a chilly arcade with end pavilions in a classic style which is certainly not characteristic of any of the nationalities governed by Francis Joseph. Moreover, it is a mere mask, with bold architectural features painted in *grisaille*. It is suggested that the architects dared not favor one of the races subject to the Austro-Hungarian crown to the exclusion of others, and therefore went to Italy for their style. But it seems a pity that with Prague to copy they couldn't have done as Portugal has, or with Hungary to reveal to Europe they couldn't have done as Russia has. For Portugal gives frankly a series of facsimile casts in plaster of parts of a convent at Belem, near Lisbon; an elaborate doorway of the convent is reproduced for the narrow front on the Rue des Nations, and the cloisters are carried within and used to enclose the Portuguese exhibit. And Russia? Russia has built a huge log house, a solid two-story affair of heavy timber. Every round log is

stripped of its bark and grooved out or hollowed all along one side, so as to fit close to its next neighbor below, and they fit so close as to need little filling of chinks, while that little is made more permanent, no doubt, if used. None is used in the building before us. At the angles the logs are halved and cross one another, leaving the ends exposed. That is the weak point; one would expect these sticks to decay very rapidly with their unprotected ends. Probably with this, as with the stuffing with moss or hay of the crevices and joints, we are not told the whole story.

The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg has a modest little house with a turret forming an oriel window, but without any doorway; for in some friendly fashion she has made common cause with three other small powers, and uses their doorway which adjoins. The principality of Monaco, the republic of San Marino, and the republic of Andorra occupy together about twenty feet in width on the street and were obliged to have a twenty-foot front in common. Belgium, on the other hand, has nearly 150 feet on the street—the third largest front—and has erected thereon a palace said to have cost 600,000 francs. There is no temporary plaster-work about this. The dealers in materials—quarrymen, brick-makers, workers in marble, wrought-iron, and bronze—have all agreed together to show off their merchandise in the best way; a competent architect, Mr. Janlet, has designed the building, and it has been built. The greater part of the wall-surface is of brick, but there are quoins, sill-courses, windows of stone from different quarries, polished columns of marble and (apparently) of syenite or granite, and open arcades of solid stone. The names of the exhibitors are set up on slabs of polished black marble along the base; they don't offend. In this, and in the use of so many materials of different colors, the designer's judgment and power over his design are very remarkable.

R. S.

### SOCIALISM IN GERMANY.

#### III.

HAMBURG, July, 1878.

THE platform of the Social Democrats, as agreed upon at their Gotha meeting in 1875, reads as follows:

I. Labor is the source of all riches and of all culture. As general profitable labor can only be done by the human society, the whole product of labor belongs to society—i. e., to all its members—who have the same duties and the same right to work, each according to his reasonable wants.

In the present society the means of work are the monopoly of the class of capitalists. The class of workingmen thus become dependent on them, and consequently are given over to all degrees of misery and servitude.

In order to emancipate labor it is requisite that the means of work be transformed into the common property of society, that all productive powers be regulated by associations, and that the entire product of labor be turned over to society and justly distributed for the benefit of all.

None but the working class itself can emancipate labor, as in relation to it all other classes are only a reactionary mass.

II. Led by these principles the Social Party of German Workingmen, by all legal means, strives for a free state and society, the breaking down of the iron laws of wages by abolishing the system of hired workingmen, by abolishing exploitation in every shape, and doing away with all social and political inequality.

The German Social Workingmen's Party, although first working within its national confines, is fully conscious of the international character of the general workingmen's movement, and is resolved to fulfill all duties which it imposes on each workingman in order to realize the fraternity of all men.

The German Social Workingmen's Party, for the purpose of preparing the way, and for the solution of the social problem, demands the creation of social productive associations, to be supported by the state government and under the control of the working people. The productive associations are to be founded in such numbers that the social organization of the whole production can be effected by them.

The German Social Workingmen's Party requires as the basis of state government:

1. Universal, equal, direct, and secret suffrage, which, beginning with the twentieth year, obliges all citizens to vote in all state, county, and town elections. Election-day must be a Sunday or a holiday.

2. Direct legislation by the people; decision as to war and peace by the people.

3. General capability of bearing arms; popular defence in place of standing armies.

4. Abolition of all exceptional laws, especially those relating to the press, public meetings, and associations—in short of all laws which hinder the free expression of ideas and thought.

5. Gratuitous administration of justice by the people.

6. General and equal, popular and gratuitous education by the government in all classes and institutes of learning; general duty to attend school; religion to be declared a private affair.

The German Workingmen's Party insists on realizing in the present state of society:

1. The largest possible extension of political rights and freedom in conformity with the above six demands.

2. A single progressive income tax for state, counties, and towns, instead of those which are imposed at present, and in place of indirect taxes, which unequally burden the people.

3. Unlimited right of combination.

4. A normal working day corresponding with the wants of society; prohibition of Sunday labor.

5. Prohibition of children's work and of women's work, so far as it injures their health and morality.

6. Protective laws for the life and health of workingmen; sanitary control of their dwellings; superintendence of mines, factories, industry and home work by officers chosen by the workingmen; an effectual law guaranteeing the responsibility of employers.

7. Regulation of prison-work.

8. Unrestricted self-government of all banks established for the mutual assistance of workingmen.

In conformity with Marx's precepts this platform, therefore, says: All means of production—i. e., the ground and soil, houses, engines, tools, and raw materials of every kind—become state property. Thus private property, *in toto* or *in parte*, is abolished, so that neither mortgages nor public funds, nor shares, claims, nor savings-bank books can be owned by any private person. Money, too, as a means of exchange, is done away with, and the state government, which is the sole owner of all values, has to furnish the necessities of life. The utmost allowance of private and inheritable property is confined to chattels or provisions which serve for personal use—as, for instance, victuals, furniture, and wearing apparel. The government orders what is to be produced in its workshops with the common means of production. Every man and woman is bound to work, and must perform that work which is allotted to him or her by the government as sole employer. Private factories, private handiwork, private agriculture, retail and wholesale trade consequently cease to be carried on. From the product of labor are first to be deducted the costs and disbursements, and the sums necessary for preserving and increasing the means of production (the capital); then the balance is partly spent for the common benefit—i. e., in government institutions for the gratuitous use of everybody—partly distributed in such a shape that to each are assigned the means for his "reasonable" wants. Such is the Social-Democratic future. Personal freedom and individual responsibility are sacrificed to an all-absorbing absolutism which will make the world a uniform barrack, if not a penitentiary.

You will have perceived from the above statement that, except making religion a private affair of each individual, the Social Democrats do not even mention it in their platform. Their leaders treat all ideal aims as a remnant of superstition which suffices for the "foolish Philistine, dull by hereditary stupidity." Thus religion is a standing theme of attack for even the most insignificant Social-Democratic stump-speakers. Marx, Lassalle, and their more prominent followers belong to the modern German philosophical school, which, being atheistic in its principles and tendencies, ignores all religious creeds and the church. In this respect their subordinate disciples are eager to imitate them. Thus, two Berlin women, leading Socialists, who openly declared themselves infidels, a Mrs. Canzius and Mrs. "President" Hahn, have lately been indicted by the district-attorney for sneering at "the infamy of the Christian religion" in a public meeting. Because the preachers, with a few exceptions, have in former reactionary times always sided with the Government and upheld the most oppressive measures against the people, they are, if not despised, in the eyes of the masses a sort of black gendarmes, and therefore have no hold and little influence on the popular mind.

How can it be explained, under these circumstances, that orthodox Protestant clergymen and the Roman-Catholic Ultramontane party not only work at times with the Social-Democratic demagogues, but even encourage them in their nefarious schemes against the very foundations of state and society?

To begin with the Roman Catholics, organized under the name of the "Centre" as a political party, they hate with the utmost intensity a government which does not suffer a foreign authority to interfere with its own, and consequently does not submit to the dictates of Rome. That party, of course, cries out against the oppression of conscience, and is eager to throw obstacles in the way of the Prussian Government. For this purpose the Roman-Catholic priests stir up the worst passions, do not refrain from open rebellion, and try to undermine the roots of the secular authority. Although prompted by other motives, the Social Democrats pursue the same aims, and wish to get rid of all government, while the Roman Catholics only attack it in its present shape. The Roman-Catholic priest is for every German Socialist an unmitigated nuisance; he laughs at the Catholic creed as a poor remnant of mediæval inventions. The



Centre is perfectly conscious of these kind feelings, but ignores them for the more practical purpose of gaining the Social-Democratic votes to its side in close elections and of occasionally using them against the liberal parties. In the Reichstag they often vote together in advocating or rejecting, in the name of liberty, motions or measures brought in by the Government and sustained by the other parties. On the politico-economical field Catholics and Socialists are both strong Protectionists. While the Centre wants to return to the "sound old protective policy," which, however, has never existed in Germany, the Social Democrats promise to protect national labor and exclaim against the Manchester school, the "laissez-faire et laissez-aller" economists, who have likewise never existed in Germany, or at least never exercised any influence on her commercial policy.

To the credit of the Social Democrats, I must say that they have never concealed their hatred and contempt of the clergy in general and of the Protestant ministers in particular. Within a few months only, with great ostentation they availed themselves in Berlin of the law which allows every Protestant to leave the established church. Thus hundreds, men and women, publicly declared their withdrawal from all communion with the church. The Protestant clergy became alarmed, and tried to avert the impending danger by an agitation among the workingmen themselves. Animated by a deadly hatred against liberalism, they hoped to kill two birds with one stone, in not only weakening the ranks of the Liberal party but also winning over to their side a considerable number of their Social-Democratic enemies. They thus formed the new "Social-Christian Party," under the leadership of the court preacher, Stoecker; held meetings in all parts of the city and edited a paper of their own, the *State-Socialist*. One of its chief contributors is a Mr. Todt. He has travestied Louis Blanc's 'Organization of Labor' into a pious pamphlet, and says, in one of his articles: "The present fight for competition (*Konkurrenzkampf*) is nothing but a system of expropriations scarcely veiled by illusions of property"; or, in other words, as Proudhon more courageously first said, "La propriété c'est le vol." The Communistic harangues of Mr. Todt are, if possible, outdone by Mr. Stoecker, who as bitterly as Marx attacks the present method of production, unqualifiedly abuses capital and the middle classes, denounces "Jews" and usurers, and, on account of his prominent official and social position, does more to confound the minds of the people than the most reckless Social-Democratic agitator could possibly do. The great criminal Hödel, just sentenced to death, was one of the most active members of Stoecker's sect. In one of the electioneering pamphlets of the Social Christians I find the following words:

"What, then, are the means with which the members of other parties promise to help you? They threaten you with loss of work if you freely confess your convictions, if you read independent papers, and if you strive for freedom and justice. The men who call themselves friends of the people threaten you with starvation in order to make you vote in their interest. You must work day by day for scanty wages to enrich these men, to enable them to drive in elegant carriages, to adorn their women with fine silk dresses and jewelry, and to send them to fashionable watering-places, while you have not your daily bread for yourselves and your families. Not even satisfied that your bodily misery establishes their fortunes and riches, they also try to suppress your moral wants, and would turn you into hypocrites, in prescribing to you what to think and to say, as though you were their slaves."

The Cathedral-Socialists, whom at different times you have characterized in your paper, although mistaken, are men of a scientific turn of mind and do no great practical harm, while the Socialists of the pulpit by their odious agitation exert a far-reaching and pernicious influence on all classes of the people.

The two attempts of Hödel and Nobiling on the life of the Emperor William have too clearly shown the full extent of the evil which in comparatively so short a time has spread all over Germany. Ludwig Bamberger, one of our most celebrated pamphleteers and a member of the Reichstag, in his last published excellent essay, "Deutschland und der Socialismus," says:

"It is quite true that state and society are not bound to look on stoically and passively while every preparation is made for actively beginning the openly threatened war. Did German Social Democrats originate their own theories? Have they not been transmitted and come down to them from the rich and highly cultivated classes? Has not one experiment followed another? Has not lately the Socialism of the Cathedral been followed by that of the pulpit? We are all at fault and to blame that Social Democracy has become really and imminently dangerous to us; some of us because they have openly or secretly helped and supported it, others because they have passively and dully looked on. But it is indeed high time that right and wrong should be discriminated, that we may know who stands up for us and who against us, and that we at length cease to

be good-natured and credulous, and try to become sober. For in no other state has this mixture of civilization and barbarism spread so far and brought on such ruin and destruction as in Germany. She is the only leading Power in which a Social-Democratic party exists—taking party in the meaning of an organized political association, which publishes its official programme in electing and elected societies, with the aim of sooner or later attaining the leadership in the state and community. France has put down Communism in open street-battle; there is no deputy of the Social Democrats in the Congress of the United States; and Burt and Macdonald, the two representatives of the working-class of the English House of Commons, are far from agreeing with the social views of our propaganda."

To conclude, the Government must deprive the Social Democrats of the means with which they work against its very being and existence; in the interest of public morals and order it must put down the Social-Democratic transgressors. In spite of their peaceful assertions, they are, in fact, a revolutionary party, and can only be subdued as such; for a party which threatens its adversaries with the guillotine, the gallows, and petroleum, which in its songs and papers glorifies the "murder of tyrants" as a highly patriotic deed, cannot complain if those who have the power take up the gauntlet and annihilate the enemy who tries to annihilate them. Germany is as yet not weak, not decrepit enough to be ruined by about a million of her erring sons; but she will only reluctantly arrive at the appreciation of the truth that she must fight a battle for life and death. After the four days of Paris street-fights in June, 1848, after the deportations under the Republic and the Empire, and after the fall of the Commune, France has got rid of her social enemies and conspirators. I hope that Germany may be spared the repetition of the same process, but as yet I don't see any way of conquering such a powerful revolutionary party with peaceful means.

## Notes.

THE new volumes of the Revised Edition of the British Poets, by Houghton, Osgood & Co., contain Dryden's works in two volumes, with a life by Mitford; Milton's and Marvell's works bound together in two volumes, to which is prefixed a life of the former by David Masson; and Prior's works in one volume, with a life by Mitford. Numerous corrections have been made, particularly in the Latin and Italian poems of Milton, and probably this is now the best printed text of the works of these authors. From the same firm come the new volumes of Longfellow's 'Poems of Places,' comprising those relating to Asia. They contain many poems difficult of access except in large libraries, and the volume on Palestine is especially choice in its religious selections. One cannot help thinking that a more prominent place has been given to Mr. Nicolas Michell than either his fame as a poet or the value of his verses requires. The same house announce the 'Life of Madame de Rochefoucauld,' and the 'Life of Guido Reni,' by M. F. Sweetser.—G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready Goethe's 'Faust,' in Prof. J. M. Hart's series of "German Classics."—'Memorials of Baroness Bunsen,' by Augustus J. C. Hare, is announced by Geo. Routledge & Sons.—Harper & Brothers will publish 'Ceramic Art,' by Jennie J. Young; 'Scientific Memoirs,' by Dr. John W. Draper; and 'Villages and Village Life,' by Nathaniel H. Egleston.—Robert Clarke & Co. have just completed their edition, translated, edited, and brought down to the present time, of Alzog's 'Church History.' The preparation of these three bulky volumes has occupied six years.—Henry Holt & Co. announce a series of handbooks for students and general readers in science, literature, art, and history. The size will be small 16mo, and the number of pages about 160.—'Thirty Years at Sea,' an autobiography by E. Shippen, U.S.N.; 'The Climate of America: its Influence in Health and Disease,' by Wm. Pepper, M.D.; and 'A Handbook of Nursing,' published under the auspices of the Connecticut Training-School, are in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co.—We have received the Report of the Chief Signal-Officer for the year 1877. A glance through it shows the wide extent of the Bureau's observations, from forest fires to the flight of swans and locusts, and even (as part of the regular army) the movements of Indians and of Pittsburgh Communists. In addition to the weather-maps proper there are several interesting charts showing the oscillations in the Ohio, Mississippi, Missouri, Cumberland, Red, and some minor rivers.—A good map of Cyprus accompanies a description of the island in the August number of the *Geographical Magazine*. In No. 75 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift*, besides a review of the Society's half-centenary, by Dr. Koner, there is a discussion by Dr. Kiepert of the population of Epirus, illustrated by a large and serviceable map. Dr. Kiepert

concludes that a rectification of the frontier of Greece in this direction, on ethnographical and religious lines, would call for two-thirds of Epirus.

—The quarterly statement for July of the Palestine Exploration Fund (England) announces the probable completion early next year of a large and a reduced map of the region explored, and recommends immediate examination (by excavation if necessary) of the shores of the Sea of Galilee in order to determine the chief places there situated.

Richard Josey's mezzotint after Whistler's full-length, life-size picture of Thomas Carlyle, will measure 14 in. by 12 in. Subscriptions should be made through Charles A. Howell, Chaldon House, Fulham, S. W., London, at the rates of £3 2s. for signed artist's proofs, £2 2s. for lettered proofs, and £1 1s. for prints.—The third edition of Dr. F. H. Strattmann's 'Dictionary of the Old English Language,' compiled from writings of the twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, and much improved and enlarged, will be sent on application to the author at 6 Karlsplatz, Crefeld, Germany, to any address for twenty-one marks (equal to twenty-one shillings), post-paid. This offer holds good only to the first of October, when the book will go to the trade, with the probable result of doubling the price.—A. Vaníček has now added to his 'Græco-Latin Etymological Dictionary' (the appearance of which was noted early this year in the *Nation*) the small supplement (84 pp.), published separately and containing the words of foreign origin in Greek and Latin, thus fulfilling the promise made in his preface. This useful work, although prepared by one disclaiming in any sense the character of a master in comparative philology, furnishes, in the briefest possible space, a most valuable etymological classification of the vocabulary of the two classical tongues, and a record of etymologies proposed by the masters of that science.

—On the 11th of September will be published in this city the first number of a fortnightly household journal called the *Art Interchange*, whose object, briefly stated, is to promote the efficiency of the Society of Decorative Art "by advertising its methods and assisting its efforts to educate taste for art." It will consist of eight pages, the size of the *Nation*, and be sent to subscribers for \$1 25 per annum. It will be conducted under the supervision of a board appointed by the Society, but the Society does not undertake the pecuniary responsibility of the enterprise, to the success of which a thousand subscribers are deemed necessary. Practical information in regard to art processes, notes and queries, and brief criticisms and literary reviews are promised, and some of our leading connoisseurs, collectors, artists, and art-critics are announced as among the probable contributors. All communications should be addressed to the *Art Interchange* at the rooms of the Society, 34 East Nineteenth Street, where also further information may be had verbally.

—The September *Atlantic* has more solid matter than is usual in summer numbers. "American Finances from 1789 to 1895," by John Watts Kearney, is an excellent résumé of the first part of that period, and contains a collection of important facts, not often found together, in an instructive and lucid form. It is of special value now, as are also the few pages on 'Primitive Communism' in criticism of M. Laveleye's theories, although they are dismissed with perhaps too much assurance. "Pope's Virginia Campaign and Porter's Part in It" and "Additional Accompaniments to Bach's and Handel's Scores" are of permanent value, but the latter will not be easily understood by any who are not to a degree specialists in music. Mr. T. S. Perry reviews entertainingly "Some French Novels," and with no little discrimination, particularly in the case of "Henri Gréville," who has lately attracted much attention and whose novels are being rapidly translated. The poem by Whittier is in his strongest spirit, and that by Dr. Holmes has great tenderness; these, with the third instalment of Mr. James's 'Europeans,' make the number of more than usual interest. We commend to all young aspirants for literary fame the remarkable story of an eight-years' literary career in New York by a writer in the Contributors' Club.

—Three papers in *Lippincott's* for September will well repay reading, namely, "An English Teacher in the United States," by D. C. Macdonald; Arthur Venner's "Personal Sketches of Some French Littérateurs"; and "The Boy on a Hill-Farm," by Mary Dean. Mr. Macdonald's frank account of his experience is certainly more favorable to the aptitude and instincts of our school youth than it is to the system in which they are brought up. He does not highly esteem our school agencies, or our practice of marking, or our examinations from within instead of from without. But on the whole the teacher's position is more agreeable, even if less remunerative, than in England. In the matter of discipline, at least, he "would rather manage a class of twenty American

boys than of twenty English," for he would be sure of being respected without being feared, and according to his desert. He has found among American children "a more genuine, spontaneous sentiment of regard for their teachers than either in England or Scotland—a sentiment utterly free from the cringing submissiveness which too often passes muster in England as a juvenile virtue." On the other hand, he would rather have an uneducated young Englishwoman for a pupil than the more refined, ladylike, tastefully-dressed American girl equally untaught. From the former he would, as a private tutor, get greater application and concentration than from the latter, with her "impatience of sustained, systematic work, combined with—or rather caused by—her devotion to social pleasures," which nothing could induce her to forego. This he found the defective trait of the American character, especially of the women—"a want of repose." Mr. Venner appears to have met socially MM. About, Taine, Feuille, André Theuriot, and perhaps Turgeneff, as well as "Henri Gréville" (Mme. Émile Durand). He has a number of good anecdotes about all of these, one from About's own lips telling how he induced M. Hachette to send Taine to the Pyrenees for his health and a book. Of Turgeneff and his incessant benevolence Mme. Gréville declared: "He is a saint, a nineteenth-century saint." Thorough knowledge, keen sympathy, and abundant humor have contributed to "The Boy on a Hill-Farm," likewise admirable for its literary form. We give a sample of it:

"Melvine, a great horse-breeder, one day took sides in a quarrel between a horse and its master, fought the man for abusing his horse—fought him hard and long: 'twas 't'other and which' with them for a while. 'I wouldn't have done it,' said his neighbor, Squire Greffern: 'I wouldn't have fought the man. I'd have reasoned with him kindly. I'd have said, 'See here, now, this horse isn't to blame: he an't human,' says I, 'and you ought not to abuse him,' says I. And says I, 'You ought to know better than to hurt a horse: it injures him,' says I. 'He has more sense than you have' (getting excited). 'You deserve to be licked yourself, by hoky! Why, Gosh Almighty! get out, or I'll thrash the day-lights out of your darned rotten hide!' So ended the squire's reproof."

—There is an article on "Western Farm Life" in the September *Scribner's*, not so good as that on New England farm-life in the previous number, and not equal in imagination or poetic feeling to Miss Dean's in *Lippincott's*. A pretty strictly guide-book description of the Engadine is contributed by General McClellan; and there is hardly anything else to single out for mention except Dr. Morton's second and concluding paper on the South African diamond fields. This deals no longer with the process of digging, but takes us among the buyers and the brokers, and lets us into the mysteries of color—"white, Cape white, bye water, off color, and yellow." But for the fashionable prejudice against yellow, everybody's desire for diamonds might be satisfied at a moderate cost. The reserved store of them is already enormous, but, Dr. Morton declares, "they never can recover their lost prestige." Diamond-cutting is so far advanced in the United States that "the cleaning, cutting, and polishing of the rough stone can now be done as well here as abroad, or (as I believe, judging by results and from the testimony of experts) better." Noticeable among the illustrations this month are Cole's engraving of W. M. Chase's interesting painting, "Ready for the Ride," exhibited last winter by the Society of American Artists, and the head of fawn of mule-deer engraved by Müller after W. M. Cary.

—Dr. Robert Tomes has in *Harper's* a readable article on "Reformed Wiesbaden," very plentifully illustrated, chiefly from photographs; the portraits being noticeably faithful, and including, if one is somewhat tired of the Emperor and Bismark and the princesses, a likeness of Fresenius, the chemist (not *Frisenius*, as the proof-reader twice has it on p. 511, nor *bon chevaliers*, as four times on p. 526, nor *Quil domage*, as on p. 537), and the poet Von Bodenstein ("Mirza Schaffy"). Dr. Tomes gives a bad account of the sanitary condition of this health-resort:

"There are stagnant and festering cesspools in the rear of every house, reeking with foul odors and poisonous emanations, which must more than overbalance, in the production of diseases, the remedial effect of all the boasted remedies of this *Kurstadt* for their cure. Typhoid, scarlet, and other pestilential fevers are necessarily indigenous to Wiesbaden, as to most of the Continental towns of Europe."

Another charming region, of doubtful salubrity, is described by Mr. W. H. Rideing, in his "Spring Jaunt to Staten Island," which has a timely interest in recalling the anti-quarantine mob of 1853, that grew out of the spread of yellow fever through the island in consequence of the hospitals then established there. Mr. Rideing makes the most of the antiquarian curiosities of the island, and of the incidents of a trip so near New York. In his Easy Chair, Mr. Curtis pays an appreciative and intimate tribute to the worth of the late Mrs. Sarah Helen Whitman, of



Providence, once the *fiancée* of Poe, and all her life prominent in the literary circles of a city which has never cultivated literature very assiduously since the days of "the Coliseum." Mr. Curtis, being a Rhode-Islander, speaks whereof he knows, and we should be glad to find him hereafter discussing the causes of the intellectual obscurity of Providence since the days of Dr. Wayland and Dr. Hedge.

—The name of the late Mr. Evert Augustus Duyckinck has been so long before the public that his death at the age of only 62 is almost a matter of surprise. His literary activity as a maker of books extended into the present decade, but it began with journalism as far back as 1840, so that he connected in his own person the Knickerbocker period with that in which we now live, but to which a name has yet to be given. He was in 1840 the founder, and for two years one of the conductors, of a monthly magazine called *Arcturus*; in 1847 he and his younger brother, the late George Long Duyckinck, undertook the *Literary World*, a weekly journal of literature and criticism, which lasted till the close of 1853. The two brothers continued their literary partnership by compiling the 'Cyclopædia of American Literature,' a work for which Griswold and some other poetical editors had partially paved the way, without, however, detracting from its original and laborious character. This Cyclopædia, which has lately been put anew upon the market with extensive additions, will always be valuable for its collection of facts and of extracts, but, as with most works of the kind, its comprehensiveness outweighs its critical worth. Mr. Duyckinck's 'History of the War for the Union' (1861-1865), and 'History of the World from the Earliest Period to the Present Time' (1870), are works of which little is now heard, and in the nature of the case less will be; still other works, original or compiled, would have to be mentioned if we were making an exhaustive catalogue of his productions. Mr. Duyckinck was a man of very amiable character, and wholly free from pedantry or conceit.

—Perhaps no literary reputation was ever attended by so perverse a fate as that of the poet Shelley. He lived amid continual family quarrels, and he seems to have bequeathed them to his friends after him. There is much that is trivial in the present passage-at-arms between Mr. Garnett and Mr. Trelawney, relative to the recent publication of the latter's *Recollections*. In the last *Athenæum* he replies to Mr. Garnett's article to the *Fortnightly* with a denial of most of Mr. Garnett's facts. He says that the heart of Shelley was refused by Mrs. Shelley, and that the notes to "Queen Mab" were published through his influence and not by Mrs. Shelley's wish, and much else, which those who are interested may read for themselves. What is noteworthy is that he says all this is but "blank cartridges," and he reserves his "ball cartridges for a last resort." What may be behind this is doubtful; but if he has any undivulged information about Shelley surely the time has come when the whole story may be told. We have been waiting and waiting now many years for the promised publication of the secret documents belonging to the Shelley family. This continued revelation of the existence of important secrets is disheartening. Let Mr. Trelawney and all others be commanded by some power either to speak out or else for ever to hold their peace. The poet they loved would be most honored and best served by absolute candor in their account of him.

—The British Museum, it is said, has lately received the fossil remains of three or four species of pigmy elephants, found in Malta, one of them belonging to an animal only three feet high. The abundance of such remains shows that this was the normal size of the animal. Those who put to scorn Marsh's and Huxley's genealogy of the horse, on account of the small size of the *orobippus*, may now contemplate an equal disparity between fossil and existing species of the very same genus.

—A correspondent ("R. B.") of the *London Times* forwards some curious and original observations respecting "Life at High Altitudes." In Potosi, Bolivia, situated at a height of 13,300 feet above the sea-level, children are generally born dead or blind; and at still higher elevations, even those long accustomed to the rarefied air of the higher Andes are liable to be attacked by a peculiar sickness locally known as the "Zoroche" or "Puna," occasioned by suddenly ascending from the *valle*, or lowlands, to the *puna*, or uplands. The symptoms are giddiness and vomiting. Mules and other beasts of burden suffer sometimes, and many die. Fatal cases happen now and then owing to the persons attacked not sitting down and resting. The Indians eat snow, but the usual remedy is to smell ammonia or garlic. Those ascending into the uplands of Bolivia from the eastern side of the Andes are not so often affected by the "Zoroche," owing to the fact that the slope from the Argentine Republic is much more gradual than that from Peru.

—Dr. A. H. Wratishaw, head-master of the Grammar School of Bury St. Edmund's—well known for his writings upon Bohemian history—has published a series of four lectures, delivered at Oxford, on the "Hilchester Foundation," upon 'The Native Literature of Bohemia in the Fourteenth Century.' It is a welcome and interesting work; nevertheless, we think it might have been made much better, if the author had held more constantly and distinctly in mind that the one aspect of his subject which has a universal interest is that it prepared the way for the Hussite movement of the century following. This movement is one of the great and astonishing facts of history, and Dr. Wratishaw well points out that it would have been impossible but for a high state of culture and education for it to take root in. The sketch and specimens of the literature are valuable in this view. But what we miss—and what belongs to a history of literature in the highest sense of the term—is such a description of life and society as to show clearly the relation of the works of literature to the people and nation. Did this literature, for example, in any way touch the mass of the peasantry, or was it wholly the production of the higher classes? On this depends largely the national character of the literature. Again, it could not lie in the author's plan to treat at length of Matthias of Janow and other Latin writers; still, some sketch of the great series of religious reformers of the last half of the century—Arnest of Pardubiez, Conrad Waldhauser, Milicz of Kremsier, and Matthias of Janow—was needed, not only because they were the forerunners of Huss, but because the native Cech writer, Thomas of Stitny, who forms the subject of the last lecture, was in a certain sense their disciple.

#### RECENT NOVELS.\*

'BLUFFTON' is one of many books of the same kind that are to be written, and the public who see in it a partial description of what the public thoughts and speculations are and have been, will be grateful if the books that are to come are as good-humored, as sincere, and no more inconclusive than this one. The story is simple and will be enacted hundreds of times in the next twenty years. The Rev. Mark Trafton goes from the East to take charge of a church in the West. He has no doubt of the orthodoxy of his creed or of the firmness of his belief; and full of hope and youth he means to live his life straight out in the place where his work is appointed. At first he is eminently successful. The sermons which come from his heart touch the hearts of his hearers. He finds the one woman for him; she accepts his offer, and life looks full of the best and happiest promises. Gradually he is found less than orthodox. A council is called to consider his heresies, and before it assembles, questions as to his personal character and the purity of his life furnish farther food for enquiry. These, of course, are triumphantly vindicated, but his misbeliefs are manifest, and his lady-love counts him an infidel and refuses to break her father's heart by marrying him. So far all is natural and coherent. We do not for itself covet long life, but we should like to live long enough to see a novel which should take up its personages at this point and describe a natural experience; should allow its hero to stand for the truth and to take all the consequences of his stand; should let us see the every-day workings of heroism in ordinary life, and should vindicate rectitude and manliness so far as not to show that all the good gifts of this world are required to make them barely tolerable. As we write we confess our too great *exigence*, remembering Job's fourteen thousand sheep and six thousand camels, etc., etc., as well as his second wife and handsome family of daughters. The tendency must be strong in the race, and Job's she-asses and yokes of oxen are here represented by travels in Europe for Mr. Trafton, after which he meets his former love in a summer-house in a gentleman's place in California. They make it up at once; her father is dead—we believe he left a competent fortune—and soon after Mr. Trafton receives a call from a certain number of people in New York who desire to hear whatever he may have to say, and with this nimbus neatly fitted round his head the book closes, and has not, we think, attempted a solution of even one of the problems which cluster about its opening.

'Landolin' is a disagreeable little book, such as Auerbach frequently writes. No doubt the very fairest aspects of nature are disfigured by the evil passions of men, but Auerbach sets forth all their hateful qualities with such vigor that the external peace and beauty half disappear, and lose all their power to soothe and reconcile the wearied onlooker.

As we approach Mr. James's book we feel like Lady Clonbrony (a

\* 'Bluffton: A Story of To-day' By M. J. Savage. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

'Landolin' By Berthold Auerbach. Translated by Annie B. Irish. (Leisure Hour Series.) New York: Henry Holt & Co.

'Watch and Ward.' By Henry James, Jr. Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.

character in Miss Edgeworth's charming story 'The Absentee'), who, whenever she had occasion to pronounce one abhorred word, puckered her lips together and spoke in the lowest possible voice. We infer that Mr. James's careful revision of 'Watch and Ward' means endorsement of the story as it stands, and Mr. James holds too high a place for anything which he deliberately acknowledges to be slightly regarded. The story is the old one of a man who proposes, or in this case falls into the plan of, educating a wife for himself. The hero, Roger Lawrence, appears first upon the scene in the uncomfortable attitude of renewing an offer which he does not expect will be accepted. Mr. Emerson says, "All men love a lover," but this sentiment does not avail against the self-consciousness, the petty awkwardness, the small *disgrazie* which Mr. James heaps on his unlovely hero. There is an intolerable deliberateness about him—we should like to have him tumble in the mud for the sake of hearing him swear—and he takes his rejection home with him as if it were a parcel that he had called for. He stumbles on a collapsed rascal who shoots himself soon after, and Roger adopts the child he leaves behind him and carries her home with him, accidentally as it were. Then appears the alternative part of the hero's character—a fussy, dilatory elaborateness. Fears of inherited disposition hardly trouble him, and the girl invincibly grows up through experiments made upon her week by week. Roger is at first equally afraid that she should love him and that she should not love him, and, though always kind, prods her every now and then to ascertain what state she has reached. A seedy, insolvent, coarse cousin of Nora's makes them a visit, makes half-love to Nora, and tries to pose as her "natural protector" and borrow money. This all seems quite right to the young lady, and soon after arrives a cousin of Roger's—a smooth-tongued, worldly-minded clergyman—who laughs at Roger, and, although himself under bonds to be married, tries his hand at making a self-pleasing kind of love to Nora. In due season Roger sends Nora to Europe under the charge of his former love, now a comfortable widow. She returns, a charming young lady, to find Roger ill with fever, and when he gets better he suddenly finds himself "in love" with Nora. His self-gratulations irresistibly remind us of an old story where a shrewd testator leaves his fortune to that one of his heirs who soonest weeps after the condition is known. One of them industriously recalls all the sorrowful circumstances of his life, dwells on the disappointment he will feel if unsuccessful, and presently starts up, presenting a complacent countenance to the company, and says: "To the best of my belief, I am shedding tears"; allowing two large ones to stream down his cheeks. So Roger; but in spite of his self-content, he offers himself to Nora in such an awkward and mean-spirited manner that acceptance is impossible, though it seems hardly necessary for Nora to run away that night to New York, intending to throw herself on her cousin's "protection." The description of the city in the early morning is the best thing in the book. Mr. James's Balzac-like detail tells at every stroke. Nora hears her chosen friend described as a swindler by his partner in business, but clings to him when he frownsly appears, and goes with him to the house where he lives in unquestionable relations with a coarse woman. Nora's dormant sensibilities are roused by a fear of being imprisoned in the house, and she runs away again, this time to the clerical cousin. She finds him in his study with his future wife and her mother. The young lady is of an enquiring mind, and finally becomes so insulting that Nora walks out of the house, meets Roger in the next street, throws herself into his arms, and they both live happy for ever after. Here comes in Lady Clonbrony. We diminish our voice to the uttermost, we roar like any sucking-dove, but we must say this is—vulgar. What woman with any instincts would go through such an experience? What man of any delicacy would want her if she did? There is infinite care expended on the making of unlovely, unreal creatures. Even the cousins might be labelled Mr. Facing-both-ways and Mr. Given-to-this-world without losing anything individual. Bunyan's allegorical beings seem alive while these people, who have the name of living, have a most allegorical thinness and limitation of existence. We cannot see what end Mr. James proposed to himself in this book. An interesting book may be written about uninteresting people, but it is by illustrating in them some touch of nature that makes the whole world kin, or by analysis that searches below every veil of circumstance and at last draws blood; but in 'Watch and Ward' we desire to keep all mantles decorously drawn and folded, lest by lifting one we see the wooden limbs and the strings whereby they are jerked. It is unnecessary for us to expatiate on Mr. James's good gifts—they are known of all men, and criticism is itself an acknowledgment of them; but when his works are brought out in "blue-

and-gold," or in any form or hue, we trust that but small space will be allotted to 'Watch and Ward.'

'Pillone' is a charming story. The bandit of our childhood reappears in the most gorgeous costume, with underground passages leading in every direction, a purse full of unset jewels, and all proper apparatus. We had forgotten what a delightful creature he is; how he deceives and outwits the stupid police, whom we feel to be our natural enemies; by what feats of strength, when necessary, he transcends all their foolish combinations; how he blows up old castles in a trice; and, when luck goes against him, how naturally he takes refuge in the crater of Vesuvius and there bides his time. There is nobody like him, and when the story is threaded together with telegraph lines, railroad trains, and modern politics, the effect on our nerves is doubled.

There is something unintentionally pathetic about 'Poganuc People.' A writer whose words have stirred a nation should be hindered, we think, by a sense of fitness from publishing these cheerful, jog-trot, sweet-cider sort of lucubrations. For New England people there must be in Mrs. Stowe's books of this sort a homely "woods" flavor which has its charm, but the rest of mankind must be profoundly tired of the clergymen and their families, the pine clearings, the doughnuts, the cake, the gossiping parishioners, the village beaux and belles, which have been so often described. They represented, no doubt, a peculiar and somewhat interesting form of society, but enough has been done about them; now let us say, "Peace to their ashes," and go home quietly.

'Six to One: A Nantucket Idyl' is as bright as any one could wish. The One is a broken-down New York editor who goes to Nantucket to recruit; the Six are the maidens unto whose mercies he falls, and they begin his torture by promising one another not to hold any private tête-à-têtes with him. Nevertheless, the end is seen from the beginning. Two of them fall in love with him, and he falls in love with only one, the gentlest and shyest of all, whose pleasures and emotions have hitherto been associated only with the sea. This life-long, intimate inweaving of her moods with the changing ocean-view makes the transition to a life centred in human relations a difficult experience, and the conflict is the most refined conception in the book, and is pleasing until the *dénouement* comes. The editor has already been once rejected by Addie—that is the heroine's name—and it was no wonder, since his proposal is said to have affected her heart "as a match touched to a hidden mine suddenly brings a fort about the ears of its unsuspecting defenders." But one day the party goes to bathe, and Addie is caught in the undertow, and her lover, swimming out to her, cannot save her life, but enjoys an undisturbed tête-à-tête as follows:

"The sea and I have fought for you, my darling, but the sea has won you!"

"No," she whispered, amid the weltering of the waves, and opened to him the seventh heaven of her eyes; "you have won me!"

"In spite of shivering limbs and trembling muscles, her words had power to fill him with a delicious warmth."

"When we sink, hold me fast," she whispered, "and the sea shall not after all come between us."

"For the first time, then, he pressed the thousand-times-dreamed-of kiss on her cold blue lips, while his eyes kissed hers, and the angry waves in vain sought to sunder their betrothal embrace. . . . She was seemingly asleep upon his shoulder, and his thoughts were far away, floating in the unearthly dream of a spirit about to be disembodied. Was not this as good a time to give up and sink as any? His poor legs deserved a rest."

It is needless to say that his legs did not get their deserts, but were mercilessly put into a boat. Except for some melodrama and extremely bad taste like this, and some remarkable sallies of wit, as when the hero says: "If Descartes had visited Nantucket, instead of '*Cogito, ergo sum*,' he would have said, 'I have eaten a soft-shell, *ergo sum*,'"—a sentence which must have sorely puzzled these dear creatures, who had presumably never heard of the Harvard Examinations for Women—the book has much merit, and may well while away a couple of indolent hours by the sea.

Not so lightly, however, should we take the 'Tritons' in hand; whoever opens this volume must prepare his soul beforehand. The chaff about pottery and the somewhat disagreeable humor of the low characters do not make up for the superfluous tragedy of which this new novel, like the author's previous 'Nimrod,' is full. Surely a deserted mother who was never wife, a natural son suddenly awakened from a dream of wealth

'Pillone. From the Danish of Wilhelm Bergsøe. By D. G. Hubbard.' (Wayside Series.) Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1878.

'Poganuc People, their Loves and Lives. By Harriet Beecher Stowe.' New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

'Six to One: A Nantucket Idyl.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.

'Tritons: A Novel. By Edwin Lasater Bynner.' Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1878.



and social position to find himself without known kin in the world, despairing of winning the maiden he loves, yet striving to build up for himself a character which would be worthy of her affection, going into distant lands to seek his fortune and returning to find hope quenched within him—all this is warp and woof for pictures of sufficient pain without the accessories of burning theatres, flame-swept woods, falls from precipices and mangled limbs. When we remember, however, how providential it was that the hero was not killed outright, how easily his shoulder might have been dislocated and his other ankle put out of joint, to say nothing of a few broken ribs, we begin to be thankful to the author for his self-restraint. Mere physical misfortune obscures the tragedy of such a story instead of deepening it. The author has sufficient power in delineating strong character, sufficient sympathy with the sad side of life, sufficient graceful sentiment, to allow him to dispense with the sensational. He makes the incidents bear too severe a strain of consequences sometimes, and the 'prentice hand appears in the way in which everything happens at the right time, and all the events dovetail with mechanical precision.

In 'Maid Ellice,' on the other hand, all this is reversed; everything happens at the wrong time, as is the case sometimes in life, and there is no tragedy not essential to the story. Maid Ellice is herself a charming creation, and one might go far without finding a pleasanter and more real picture of English country life. The quiet home, the eccentric and strong-hearted squire, the manly Oxford lad, the morbid discontent of the sister combine into a perfectly natural group, and the story is told with great power. It portrays simple and strong character which may be enjoyed apart from the dark plot that finally involves it, and out of whose shadow it at length emerges more admirable. We commend it to our readers.

*The Structure and Habits of Spiders.* By J. H. Emerton. The American Natural History Series, II. (Salem, Mass.: The Naturalist's Agency. 1878. 12mo, cloth, pp. 118, 67 figures.)—As stated in the preface, the object of this book is "to give a plain account of the best-known habits of spiders, and as much of their anatomy and classification as is necessary to understand these habits." We must admit that this object has been fairly accomplished in this the first American introduction to the study of spiders. It is not, strictly speaking, the first book upon the subject issued in this country, for the Boston Society of Natural History has republished the papers of Nicholas Marcellus Hentz, in a volume the editing of which was ably done by the author of the present work. But Hentz's descriptions and figures are mainly of a technical character, and refer but slightly to the habits of spiders.

The book opens with a description of the structure of spiders. Then follow brief characterizations of the ten great families which include the vast majority of species. A few pages are devoted to the feeding habits. The stories of serious injury and death resulting from spider-bites are dismissed as improbable, but, as it seems to us, rather hastily, and without sufficient recognition of the likelihood that there is among spiders a difference in respect to the venomous nature of the poison similar to what exists among serpents. Certainly the "hunting" or "jumping" spiders which make no nets are far more to be dreaded than the bulkier forms which depend chiefly upon their snares for securing their prey. This is a part of the subject in which people take a very direct and personal interest, and we wish our author had not contented himself with mentioning the experiments of a few observers upon foreign spiders.

Since the spider is, etymologically, the *spinner*, we are not surprised that nearly one-half of the book is devoted to the nets, and the organs by which they are produced. Our author's description of the way in which the net of the "garden spiders" is begun does not agree with the account by Miss Staveley—whose excellent little work, 'British Spiders,' by the way, is not mentioned. Perhaps the species of *Epeiridae* vary in this respect, or pursue different methods upon different occasions.

The section upon "Trap-door Spiders" is very interesting, but, as our author states, is wholly compiled from accounts of foreign forms. Could not our Californian species be brought to the East, so that its habits could be observed? Our author does not allude to the two holes near the edge of the lid into which the spider is said to fix her hinder claws as she descends, so as to hold it against intrusion.

The remarkable habits of the English water-spiders are next described, but we are left in doubt as to the existence of any American forms with similar modes of life. Nor is the peculiar, but not uncommon, *Tetragnatha* of this country alluded to. Among the more com-

monly-known nets described one of the most elegant is the dome made by *Linyphia marmorata*, and the figure of it is a capital specimen of Mr. Emerton's skill.

The chapter on the growth of spiders embraces the largest amount of original matter, and many of the figures are not only excellent but of great scientific value. We say *scientific*, because several of them, representing the meeting of different species for the purpose of fertilizing the eggs, seem to us quite out of place in the present volume, while eminently deserving to appear in the publications of some learned society, as contributions toward the elucidation of a confessedly obscure point in the economy of spiders.

The numerous and excellent figures form a most attractive feature of Mr. Emerton's book. Most of them have been drawn by the author (whose skill as an artist-naturalist is widely known), and nearly all illustrate the form, the structure, or the habits of native spiders. The full-page representations of the garden spider (figures 1, 4, and 5) are especially useful in understanding the text, although we think a larger species would have afforded greater facilities to the beginning student, and a cross-section of the thorax would have rendered more intelligible the account of the peculiar sucking stomach. The figures are, in the main, accurate, but our author must be aware that no garden spider ever makes a perfectly vertical net, such as is implied in figure 55. The usefulness of the illustrations would be increased by an explanation under each.

The list of books about spiders might, with very little additional trouble, have been made complete, at least so far as the English language is concerned; but, besides the omissions already mentioned, no reference is made to the papers of Cambridge, who is carrying on Blackwall's labors, to an article on *Argiope* in *Harper's Monthly* for March, 1867, or to the notes or papers which are to be found in nearly every number of the *American Naturalist*, where, by the way, appeared our author's first spider paper. Finally, much interesting matter on the habits of spiders is contained in Kirby and Spence, and Wood's 'Homies without Hands.'

Upon the whole, in view of what we had been led to expect from our author's powers and opportunities, the impression left upon us is that of disappointment at the smallness of the book and the meagreness of original statement. But we hope that such substantial encouragement may be received as shall lead to the publication of a work upon American spiders more nearly commensurate with the extent of the subject, the ability of the author, and the price of the volume. The most useful preparation for such a work would be an exhaustive monograph upon the structure, the habits, and the development of some large and common American species, and for such an undertaking we believe our author to be eminently qualified.

*The Graveyards of Boston.* Vol. I., Copp's Hill Epitaphs. Prepared for publication by William H. Whitmore. (Albany: Joel Munsell. 1878.)—The burying-ground at Copp's Hill, though second of Boston's six in antiquity, dating from 1660, did not attain its full limits till 1819, and it is, therefore, not so very long since it fell into disuse. In 1852 an incomplete and too careless transcript was made and published by the late Thomas Bridgman, from the "Inscriptions, Epitaphs, and Records on the Monuments and Tombstones" in the cemetery. The present editor, Mr. Whitmore, employed the late Thomas B. Wyman, jr., to make a fresh transcript from the stones, with constant comparisons with Bridgman, and we have the result in the volume before us, a work which has been a labor of love to all parties concerned in bringing it out, and especially to the publisher, already accustomed, in this line of literary adventure, to look for an adequate reward in another and a better world. A preface exposing the shortcomings of Mr. Bridgman, an introduction giving the history of the ground and, with the aid of the town records, of particular tombs; and engravings of nine coats-of-arms copied from such stones as bear them, precede some 2,000 inscriptions in numerical order, and these, with a very copious index, conclude the book.

From an historic point of view, the Mathers, who head the list, the Hutchinsons, and Christopher Gore, outrank all who lie beside them; but the genealogist, mindful of human vicissitudes, finds their chief distinction to consist in the facility with which their descendants can be traced, and prizes this record neither more nor less because their names are included in it. In spite of considerable diversity in the form of the epitaphs, they mostly agree in being brief and to the point. The graveyard muse is slighted by the editor and, as a rule, reduced to brackets, thus: "[14 lines of verse]," and those who turn to this volume for obituary amusement will be disappointed. Still, not all the quaintness is suppressed, nor

all the vanity. Here is a gallant major who "Died in the Calms of domestic Felicity as becomes a universal Christian"; there a Revolutionary merchant "lies buried in a Stone Grave 10 feet deep"; here we must mourn a physician of "dignified Deportment, sublime eloquence, unbounded Philanthropy and other virtues"; of a Prussian homeward bound from the West Indies, "It may with truth be said of this worthy stranger, in his life he was an example of goodness and greatness of mind rarely to be met with, and died the Death of the Righteous Man"; "Brother Sextons," entreats the husband of Betsy D. ("She was the mother of 17 children; and around her lie 12 of them; and 2 were lost at sea"), "Brother Sextons, Please to leave a clear birth [sic] for me near by this stone"; further on "lyes the mortal part" of "A Despisers of Sorry Persons and Little Actions, An Enemy to Priestcraft and Enthusiasm, Ready to relieve and help the Wretched, A Lover of good Men of Various Denominations, and a Reverent Worshipper of the Deity"; and "In fine," to conclude with another major's eulogium, "could extensive virtue worth Rescue from the tomb, Reader, thou hadst not been told Here lies Ruddock."

Mr. Whitmore not only hopes that the American ancestor-worship will help Mr. Munsell off with this volume without loss, but he lets it be known that Mr. Wyman's transcripts from the other Boston graveyards are in his keeping, and only await the public demand to be likewise put into print, and so permanently preserved. We are decidedly of opinion that such unmercenary expectations ought to be gratified, and such public spirit in editor and publisher acknowledged in the only way in which it can be.

*From Egypt to Japan.* By Henry M. Field, D.D. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877.)—This second volume of Dr. Field's travels around the world will please any one who has the leisure to read it through, for its style is both facile and lucid. The author has had the good sense to select for comment those subjects only which especially in-

terested himself, and therefore he interests his readers. The chief drawback of the book is its occasional introduction of inappropriate Scripture quotations. One instance of this occurs at the very outset. What analogy, we would ask, is there between Dr. Field's safe landing at Alexandria and St. Paul's shipwreck at Malta sufficient to justify him in detaining his readers to hear the quotation "on boards or broken pieces of the ship"? Again, in the concluding chapter, where his departure from Japan was emphasized by the presence of some American friends, he introduces a comparison with Paul's famous embarkation at Miletus. Even supposing that these two journeys were of equal importance to the world, is it becoming in the author to intimate this, particularly considering the theological importance which he professes to attach to the movements of the apostle? There are fewer of these blemishes, however, than in the previous volume, 'From the Lakes of Killarney to the Golden Horn,' and fewer than in the narrative works of most clergymen, and they are far more than counterbalanced by the uncommon appreciation shown for foreign religions, including Buddhism. The chapter upon the Buddhists (Chinese) is the most interesting of the book. In a chapter entitled "Do missionaries do any good?" he writes (as negative arguments): "There is no greater offence against courtesy, against that mutual concession of perfect freedom which is the first law of all human intercourse, than to interfere wantonly with the opinions—nay, if you please, with the false opinions, with the errors and prejudices of mankind!" And elsewhere: "When a people have become possessed with the idea that they are the people of God, and that others are outcasts, they become insensible to the sufferings of those outside." Surely it is not Japan alone that has been "opened" by trans-Pacific intercourse, but Puritanism as well. In other ways, also, too subtle to be compactly illustrated, but all comprehensible under the characterization of an increased freedom from pretentiousness, this second volume is better adapted than the first to a cosmopolitan market, instead of to the readers of the author's newspaper exclusively.

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